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THE
PRINCIPLES
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

COMPRISING THE SUBSTANCE OF THE MOST APPROVED
ENGLISH GRAMMARS EXTANT,

WITH
COPIOUS EXERCISES IN PARSING AND SYNTAX;

A NEW EDITION,
REVISED, RE-ARRANGED AND IMPROVED.

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY REV. PETER BULLIONS, D. D.

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THE SERIES OF GRAMMARS, GREEK, LATIN, AND ENGLISH, ETC.,
ON THE SAME PLAN.

THIRTY-FIRST EDITION, REVISED.

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PREFACE.

A knowledge of English Grammar is very properly considered an indispensable part of an English education; and is now taught as such, in all our Academies and Common Schools. The great number of elementary works which have recently appeared on this subject, is a pleasing evidence of the attention which has been bestowed upon it. Among these, none has enjoyed greater favor than the Grammar of LINDLEY MURRAY; and the high rank which it still holds among the numerous works which have appeared since its publication, is a decided testimony to the soundness of its principles and the excellence of the system. With all its excellence, however, it is far from being incapable of improvement; and the attempt to add to its value as a manual for schools, by correcting what is erroneous, retrenching what is superfluous or unimportant, compressing what is prolix, elucidating what is obscure, determining what was left doubtful, supplying what is defective, and bringing up the whole to that state of improvement to which the labours of eminent scientific and practical writers of the present day have so greatly contributed, can hardly fail, if well executed, to prove acceptable to the public. Such was my design; and though there may be reason to regret that it has not been undertaken by some one more capable of doing justice to the subject, still it is hoped that the labor bestowed, in order to carry it into effect, will not be altogether in vain.

In endeavoring to avoid the minutiae and diffuseness of the larger Grammar, care has been taken to guard against the opposite extreme. The abridgments of Murray now in use, are little more than a synopsis of the larger work; presenting a mere outline of the subject, altogether too meagre to be of much service to the learner. The same remark is applicable to a great number of smaller works which have been published with a similar view; namely, to serve as an introduction to a more extended system. They are incapable themselves of imparting a satisfactory knowledge of the subject: and yet it often happens, perhaps even in a majority of cases, that those who have commenced with the "introduction," have neither the time nor the means to get beyond it: and besides, unless the "introduction" be constructed on the

same principle of arrangement and expression with the one which is intended to succeed it, it will probably be found worse than useless; for when a particular arrangement and phraseology have become familiar to the mind, there is great difficulty in studying another work on the same subject, in which the arrangement and expression are materially different. A Grammar, to be really valuable, ought to be *simple* in its style and arrangement, so as to be adapted to the capacity of youth, for whose use it is designed, *comprehensive*, so as to be a sufficient guide in the most difficult, as well as in easy cases; and its principles and rules should be rendered familiar to the learner by numerous examples and exercises.

To meet these views of what a Grammar for the use of Schools *ought* to be, the present compilation has been made: with what success, a discerning public, to whose judgment it is respectfully submitted, will decide. Utility, not novelty, has been aimed at. In collecting materials, I have freely availed myself of the labors of others who have treated on the subject since the days of Murray, and particularly of those whose object has been similar to my own. LENNIE'S "Principles of English Grammar," deservedly esteemed in Britain the best compend for the use of schools which has yet appeared, I have adopted as the ground plan of my work. The works of MURRAY, ANGUS, CONNELL, GRANT, CROMBIE, HILEY, and others in the extensive collection of my friend Dr. BECK, to which I have enjoyed free access, have been consulted; and from all of them has been carefully selected, condensed, and arranged, whatever seemed to be suitable to my purpose. For several valuable suggestions, also, I am indebted to Dr. T. R. BECK, and several other literary friends, who kindly examined my MSS. before they were sent to press, and freely communicated their sentiments. On the whole, it is believed that there is nothing of much importance in Murray's larger Grammar, or in the works of subsequent writers, that will not be found condensed here.

On the subject of Etymology, much expansion has been deemed unnecessary; I have therefore generally contented myself with stating *results*, without embarrassing the work with the processes, often tedious and obscure, which have led to them. In the classification of words, almost all writers differ from one another; and though on this subject there has been much discussion, nothing has yet been proposed which, on the whole, appears less objec-

tionable in principle, or more convenient in practice, than that of Murray, which is therefore generally retained.

In Syntax, greater fullness has been considered proper. In the arrangement of the Rules, scarcely two writers have followed the same order; and that here adopted is somewhat different from any other. Without regarding much the usual division of Syntax into *Concord* and *Government*, those rules are placed first which appear to be most simple, and of most frequent occurrence. Care has been taken, however, to connect with a leading rule those of a subordinate character allied to it, and to add under every rule such notes and observations as appeared necessary to its illustration. Numerous examples of false Syntax follow each rule, generally on the same page; also examples adapted to the notes, etc. are subjoined, distinguished by the number of the note to which they belong. For the purpose of better exercising the judgment of the pupil, there have been introduced at intervals, exercises on the preceding rules promiscuously arranged; and at the end, promiscuous exercises are furnished on all the rules and observations; the whole forming a body of exercises, containing perhaps not fewer examples than Murray's separate volume of Exercises on the Rules of Syntax. In this, economy as well as convenience has been consulted. The leading principles have been made so prominent by being printed on a large type, that they may be easily studied by the youngest classes without a separate compend. Every thing necessary for the fuller expansion and illustration of these principles, has been introduced in its place; and the whole furnished with questions and appropriate exercises, in order to render every part familiar to the mind of the pupil as he advances, so that no larger treatise, and no separate book of exercises, will be necessary. The arrangement of the exercises on syntax on the same page with the rule which they are designed to illustrate, it is believed, will greatly diminish the labor, both of teacher and pupil, in going over this important part of the subject.

Another object steadily kept in view in this compilation, is to render it a profitable introduction to classical studies. While all languages differ from one another in their modes of inflexion, and in some forms of expression peculiar to themselves, usually denominated *idioms*, their general principles are, to a very great extent, the same. It would seem, therefore, to be proper, in

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constructing grammars for different languages, that the principles, so far as they are the same, should be arranged in the same order, and expressed as nearly as possible in the same words. Were this carefully done, the study of the grammar of one language would be a very important aid in the study of another; and the opportunity thus afforded, of seeing wherein they agree and wherein they differ, would of itself furnish a profitable exercise in comparative grammar. But when a Latin grammar is put into the hands of a boy, differing widely in its arrangement or phraseology from the English grammar which he had previously studied, and then in due time a Greek grammar different from both, not only is the benefit derived from the analogy of the different languages in a great measure lost, but the whole subject is made to appear intolerably intricate and mysterious. To remedy this evil, I resolved, some time ago, to publish a series of Grammars of the English, Latin, and Greek languages, arranged in the same order, and expressed as nearly in the same words as the genius of the languages would permit.

This series has now been some time before the public, and has been received with a degree of favor far surpassing my expectations.

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

New plates for this work having become necessary, the opportunity has been embraced to improve the work in such a way as to render it still more worthy of public favor. Several of the definitions and rules have been rendered more strictly accurate. In many places, observations and remarks have been introduced, where they seemed to be necessary to complete or elucidate the subject. The etymology of the article which stood before, is now, as it should be, placed after the noun; and that of the participle is placed with the moods and tenses, before the inflection of the verb, instead of coming after it. In these two instances only, is the order of the sections changed. In the verb, the designation and arrangement of tenses first adopted in this Grammar, but which were subsequently changed, are here resumed, being considered as altogether better, because more natural and appropriate. The former designations, however, are placed in parentheses, (except the *imperfect*, which does not correctly express the import of that tense), that teachers may adopt those which

they prefer. In the observations on the tenses, an attempt has been made to render them more full and explicit; and in the inflection of the verb, negative and interrogative forms have been introduced after the active voice.

In Syntax, two or three rules have been altered, where it seemed desirable for the sake of greater accuracy and simplicity. So much of Rules IV., V., and VI. as referred to the pronoun, has been omitted, to avoid the confusion occasioned by uniting two subjects (the verb and personal pronoun) under one rule, and all that relates to the Syntax of the personal pronoun has been placed together in special rules under Rule X. The exercises under these rules have been revised and made to correspond to these changes. In Prosody, several defects have been supplied, and the article on Composition has been considerably enlarged.

To make room for these improvements, the lists of questions heretofore interspersed through the work, and the utility of which has been questioned by distinguished teachers, have been removed to the end of the book, where they are placed together, so that they may be used or not, as the teacher may direct. For the same purpose, all discussions of grammatical questions have been removed from the body of the work to the Appendix, and suitable reference made to them in the text. In this position, they interfere less with the regular progress of the work, and may be consulted at pleasure. By this means, also, an opportunity is afforded of discussing the several subjects, when it was thought important, at greater length than would have been proper in their place; and hence, it will be seen, the Appendix has been considerably enlarged.

By means of these arrangements, the leading parts of the Grammar are made to occupy nearly the same place as before, being seldom more than one page distant from their former position. This revisal of the work has been gone into more thoroughly now, to avoid the necessity of ever hereafter making any changes; but no change has been made which will occasion any difficulty in using this edition with the other, as the parts introduced for the most part belong to the Notes and Observations, very seldom to the leading parts.

For further information, reference is occasionally made to the Analytical and Practical Grammar, in which the subjects generally are treated of with greater fullness, especially in Syntax, than in this compend.

PLAN OF THIS WORK.

1. In this work the leading principles, definitions, and rules, forming by themselves an epitome of Grammar, are printed in larger type, and expressed in brief, accurate, and simple language, so as to be easily committed to memory.

2. All that is necessary to fill up this outline, and with it to form a complete school grammar, is inserted in its place in smaller type in Observations and Remarks, not to be committed to memory, but to be studied more fully in connection with the leading parts, in subsequent reviews.

3. The whole is perspicuously arranged under distinct sections and heads, all of which are numbered separately; and now, in addition to this, all the paragraphs are numbered by a running series of numbers, rendering it easy to refer to any particular part.

4. At the close of each part of speech, and frequently at intervals under different heads, Exercises, simple and easy, are introduced, for the purpose of rendering the pupil familiar with each step as he goes along, and better prepared for entering on that which is to follow.

5. The leading rules of Syntax always stand at the top of the page; and under each is presented, in special rules, in small type, or in observations and remarks in type still smaller, all that is necessary to complete or explain the subject of which it treats; and then, under these are furnished examples of false Syntax to be corrected—an exercise of great importance, to render the principles previously studied, and their use, familiar to the pupil.

6. For the same purpose, numerous examples of false Syntax under all the rules are furnished at the end, promiscuously arranged. In correcting these, it will always be proper to shew wherein they are wrong, mention the rule which they violate, and give the rule or the reason for the change made.

7. In Analysis and Parsing, it is important that one uniform method, the shorter the better, provided it be accurate and full, should be pursued; either that here recommended, or such other as the teacher may prefer; and that the rules, when repeated, be repeated accurately in the very words of the text.

8. The subject of Composition, at the end of the book, will be a profitable study for the pupil after he has studied the grammar, and furnish the means of constantly applying its principles.

By pursuing this method, the study of Grammar, instead of being, as it is usually considered, a dry and laborious exercise of memory, becomes, from the first, practical, intellectual, and interesting; so that with but little labor, almost imperceptibly, and in a very short time, the pupil becomes a proficient in this important branch of study.

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GRAMMAR.

1. GRAMMAR is both a SCIENCE and an ART.
 2. As a SCIENCE, it investigates the principles of language in general. When thus used, it is denominated GENERAL or UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR; and sometimes COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR.
 3. As an ART, it teaches the right method of applying these principles to a particular language, so as to express our thoughts in a correct and proper manner, according to established usage. App. I
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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

4. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.
5. GRAMMAR is divided into four parts; namely, *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.
6. *Orthography* treats of letters and syllables, *Etymology*, of words; *Syntax*, of sentences; and *Prosody*, of elocution and versification.

PART FIRST.

§ 1. ORTHOGRAPHY.*

7. ORTHOGRAPHY treats of letters, and the mode of combining them into syllables and words.

8. A *Letter* is a mark or character used to represent an elementary sound of the human voice.

9. There are *Twenty-six* letters in the English Alphabet.

10. Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

11. A *Vowel* is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound; and in a word or syllable may be sounded alone. The vowels are, *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y*, not before another vowel sounded in the same syllable.

12. A *Consonant* is a letter which represents an *articulate* sound and in a word or syllable is never sounded alone, but always in connexion with a vowel. The consonants are, *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and *w* and *y* before a vowel sounded in the same syllable.

13. A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one sound. Diphthongs are of two kinds, proper and improper.

14. A *Proper Diphthong* is one in which both the vowels are sounded; as *ou* in *out*, *oi* in *oil*, *ow* in *cow*.

15. An *Improper Diphthong* is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as *ou* in *court*, *oa* in *boat*.

16. A *Triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one sound as *eau* in *beauty*.

* Orthography is properly a part of Grammar, as it belongs to "the art of speaking and writing a language with propriety." Yet as the whole subject is treated more fully in the spelling-book and dictionary, a brief synopsis of its principles only is here given, rather as a matter of *form*, than with a view to its being particularly studied at this stage. The teacher may, therefore, if he thinks proper, pass over this part for the present, and begin with PART II.

SYLLABLES.

17. A *Syllable* is a distinct sound forming the whole of a word, as *far* ; or so much of it as can be sounded at once, as *far* in *far-mer*.

18. A word contains as many syllables as it has distinct vocal sounds; as, *gram-ma-ri-an*.

19. A *Monosyllable* is a word of one syllables; as, *fox*.

20. A *Dissyllable* is a word of two syllables; as, *far-mer*.

21. A *Trisyllable* is a word of three syllable; as, *pi-e-ty*.

22. A *Polysyllable* is a word of many syllables.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

23. The division of words into syllables is called *Syllabication*.

GENERAL RULE.

24. Place together in distinct syllables, those letters which make up the separate parts or divisions of a word, as heard in its correct pronunciation.

25. Two separate words combined as one name, are usually separated by a hyphen; as, *rail-road*, *glass-house*, *bee-hive*.

26. In writing, a word of more than one syllable may be divided at the end of a line; but a monosyllable, or a syllable, never.

§ 2. SPELLING.

27. **SPELLING** is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters.

28. The orthography of the English language is so anomalous and in many cases arbitrary, that proficiency in it can be acquired only by practice, and the use of the spelling-book or dictionary. The following rules are of a general character, though even to these there may be a few exceptions:—

GENERAL RULES FOR SPELLING WORDS.

RULE I.

29. Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l* or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*.

Exceptions. Of, if, as, is, has, was, his, gas, yes, this, us, thus, pus.

RULE II.

30. Words ending with any consonant except *f*, *l* or *s*, do not double the final letter; as, *sit*, *not*, *up*, *put*, *that*, *in*.

Exc. Add, bunn, butt, buzz, ebb, egg, err, inn, odd, purr.

RULE III.

31. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *rob*, *robber*; *admit*, *admittance*, *admitted*.

Exceptions. But *x* and *h* are never doubled.

32. But when a diphthong or double vowel precedes, or the accent is *not* on the last syllable, the consonant is not doubled; as, *boil*, *boiling*, *boiler*; *wool*, *woolen*; *fool*, *foolish*; *visit*, *visited*.

Exceptions. In about fifty words ending in *l* with a vowel before it, and not accented on the last syllable, many writers, contrary to analogy and without necessity, double the *l* improperly

before an additional syllable. These are such words as *travel*, *traveller*, *travelling*, *travelled*.*

So also *s* and *p* are generally, though improperly, doubled in *bias*, *worship*, and *kidnap*; as *biassing*, *worshipper*, *kidnapping*. Webster, and many writers following him, in these words conform to the general rule.

RULE IV.

33. Words ending with *ll* drop one *l* before the terminations *less* and *ly*, to prevent trebling, as, *skill*, *skillless*; *full*, *fully*; and some writers, before *ness* and *ful*; as, *fulness*, *skilful*.

34. But words ending in any other double letter, preserve the letter double before *less*, *ly*, *ness*, and *ful*; as, *harmlessly*, *stiffly*, *gruffness*, etc.

RULE V.

35. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before an additional letter or syllable; as, *spy*, *spies*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; *carry*, *carrier*, *carried*; *fancy*, *fanciful*.

Exc. 1. But *y* is not changed before *ing*: as, *deny*, *denying*.

Exc. 2. Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged; as, *boy*, *boys*, *boyish*, *boyhood*. But *lay*, *pay*, *say*, make *laid*, *paid*, *said*; and *day* makes *daily*.

RULE VI.

36. Silent *e* is preserved before the terminations, *ment*, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*; as, *paleness*, *peaceful*, *abatement*, &c.

*The words referred to are the following: Apparel, bevel, bowel, cancel, carol, cavil, channel, chisel, counsel, cudgel, dishevel, drivel, duel, embowel, enamel, empannel, equal, gambol, gravel, grovel, handsel, hatchel, imperil, jewel, kennel, label, level, libel, marshal, marvel, model, panel, parcel, pencil, peril, pistol, pommel, quarrel, ravel, revel, rival, rowel, shovel, shrivel, snivel, tassel, tram-mel, travel, tunnel; unravel.

Exceptions. Duly, truly, awful, and generally, judgment, acknowledgment, lodgment, abridgment, are excepted. Argument, from the Latin *argumentum*, is not an exception.

RULE VII.

37. Silent *e* is omitted before terminations beginning with a vowel; as, *slave, slavish; cure, curable; sense sensible; lodge, lodging; love, lovest.*

38. *Blame, move, reprove, sale*, and their compounds, some times, though improperly, retain *e* before *able*; as, *blameable*, etc.

39. But words ending in *ge* and *ce* retain *e* before *able*, in order to preserve the soft sound of *g* and *c*; as, *changeable, peaceable*, etc. For the same reason, we have *singeing* and *swingeing*. *Dye* has *dyeing*, to distinguish it from *dying*. So also words ending with *c* hard, insert *k* before a syllable beginning with *e* or *i*, to preserve the hard sound; as, *frolic, frolicked, frolicking*.

40. The letters *ie*, at the end of a word, are changed into *y* before *ing*; as, *die, dying; lie, lying*.

RULE VIII.

41. Simple words ending in *ll*, when joined to other words, generally drop one *l* when they lose the accent; as, *awful, hopeful, handful, careful, already*.

42. But when they are under the accent, the double *l* should be retained; as, *fulfill, willful, recall, foretell*. But *until, welcome, always, also, withal, therewithal, wherewithal*, have single *l*.

43. On the subject of this rule, however, usage is far from uniform: *fulfil* and *fulfill, wilful* and *willful, recal* and *recall, foretel* and *foretell*, and similar varieties are common.

44. Other compounded words are generally spelled in the same manner as the simple words of which they are formed; as, *glass-house, mill-wright, thereby*.

45. Many words in English admit of two or more different modes of spelling; as, *connection, connexion; enquire, inquire; chemistry, chymistry*, etc. In such cases, prevailing usage and analogy must be our guides.

PART SECOND.

§ 3. ETYMOLOGY.

46. ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.

47. WORDS are certain articulate sounds used by common consent as signs of our ideas.

1st. Words, in respect of their *Formation*, are either *Primitive* or *Derivative*, *Simple* or *Compound*.

A *Primitive* word is one that is not derived from any other word in the language; as, *boy, just, father*.

A *Derivative* word is one that is derived from ~~some~~ other word; as, *boyish, justice, fatherly*.

A *Simple* word is one that is not combined with any other word; as, *man, house, city*.

A *Compound* word is one that is made up of two or more simple words; as, *manhood, horseman*.

2d. Words, in respect of *Form*, are either *Declinable* or *Indeclinable*.

A *Declinable* word is one which undergoes certain changes of *form* or *termination*, to express the different relations of gender, number, case, person, etc., which in Grammar are usually called ACCIDENTS; as, *man, men; love, loves, loved*.

An *Indeclinable* word is one which undergoes no change of form; as, *good, some, perhaps*.

3d. In respect of *Signification* and *Use*, words are divided into different classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

§ 4. PARTS OF SPEECH.

48. The Parts of Speech in the English language are nine; viz., The *Noun* or *Substantive*, *Article*, *Adjective*, *Pronoun*, *Verb*, *Adverb*, *Preposition*, *Interjection*, and *Conjunction*. App. II.

49. Of these, the *Noun*, *Pronoun*, and *Verb*, are declined; the rest are indeclinable.

50. NOTE. A noun is called also a *substantive*. But this term, for convenience, is here used in a more comprehensive sense, to mean a *noun*, a *pronoun*, an *infinitive mood*, or a *phrase* used as a noun, and usually called "a substantive phrase." Thus in such a rule as this, "An adjective agrees with a substantive," etc., the word *substantive* may mean a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive mood, or a substantive phrase.

51. PARSING is the art of resolving a sentence into its elements or parts of speech, stating the accidents or grammatical properties of each word, and pointing out its relation to other words with which it is connected.

52. Parsing is distinguished into *Etymological* and *Syntactical*.

53. A word is parsed *Etymologically* by stating the class of words to which it belongs, with its *accidents* or grammatical properties.

54. A word is parsed *Syntactically* by stating, in addition, the relation in which it stands to other words, and the rules according to which they are combined in phrases and sentences.

§ 5. NOUNS.

55. A NOUN is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *John*, *London*, *book*. App. III.

56. NOUNS are of two kinds, *Proper* and *Common*

57. A *Proper Noun* is the name applied to an individual only; as, *Albany, Washington, the Hudson.*

58. A *Common Noun* is a name applied to all things of the same sort; as, *man, chair, table, book.*

59. REMARK. *Proper nouns* distinguish *individuals* of the same class from one another. *Common nouns* distinguish *sorts* or *classes*, and are equally applicable to all things of the same class.

60.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Proper nouns denoting persons, usually become common by having an article prefixed; as, "He is *the Cicero* of his age."

2. Common nouns become proper when personified, and also when used as proper names; as, Hail *Liberty!* The *Park.*

3. Under common nouns are usually ranked,

1st. *Collective nouns*, or *nouns of multitude*, which signify many in the singular number; as, *army, people.*

2d. *Abstract nouns*, or names of qualities; as, *piety, wickedness.*

3d. *Verbal nouns*, or the names of actions, or states of being, as, *reading, writing, sleeping.* (195.)

ACCIDENTS OF THE NOUN.

61. To NOUNS belong *Person, Gender, Number, and Case.*

§ 6. PERSON.

62. PERSON, in grammar, is the relation of a noun or pronoun to what is said in discourse. There are three persons; the *first, second, and third.* App. IV.

63. A noun is in the *first* person, when it denotes the speaker or writer; as, "I *Paul* have written it."

64. A noun is in the *second* person, when it denotes the person or thing addressed; as, "Thou, *God*, seest me." — "Hail, *Liberty!*"

65. A noun is in the *third* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "*Truth* is mighty."

§ 7. GENDER.

66. GENDER is the distinction of nouns with regard to Sex. There are three genders, the *Masculine*, *Feminine*, and *Neuter*. App. V.

67. Nouns denoting *males* are *Masculine*; as, *man*, *boy*.

68. Nouns denoting *females* are *Feminine*; as, *woman*, *girl*.

69. Nouns denoting neither *males* nor *females* are *Neuter*; as, *book*, *house*, *field*.

70. There are three ways of distinguishing the sexes :

1. By different words; as,

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Bachelor	maid	Horse	mare
Beau	belle	Husband	wife
Boy	girl	King	queen
Brother	sister	Lord	lady
Buck	doe	Man	woman
Bull	cow	Master	mistress
Drake	duck	Nephew	niece
Earl	countess	Ram, buck	ewe
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar	nun	Stag	hind
Gander	goose	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe	Wizzard	witch

2. By a difference of termination; as,

Abbot	abbess	Bridegroom	bride
Actor	actress	Benefactor	benefactress
Administrator	administratrix	Count	countess
Adulterer	adulteress	Deacon	deaconess
Ambassador	ambadress	Duke	duchess
Arbiter	arbitress	Elector	electress
Author (often)	authoress	Emperor	empress
Baron	baroness	Enchanter	enchantress

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Executor	executrix	Prince	princess
Governor	governess	Prior	prioress
Heir	heiress	Prophet	prophetess
Hero	heroine	Protector	protectress
Hunter	huntress	Shepherd	shepherdess
Host	hostess	Songster	songstress
Jew	jewess	Sorcerer	sorceress
Landgrave	landgravine	Sultan	{sultana, or sub- taness
Lion	lioness	Tiger	tigress
Marquis	marchioness	Traitor	traitress
Mayor	mayoress	Tutor	tutoress
Patron	patroness	Viscount	viscountess
Peer	peeress	Votary	votaress
Poet	poetess	Widower	widow
Priest	priestess		

3. By prefixing a distinguishing word; as.

A <i>cock</i> sparrow.	A <i>hen</i> sparrow.
A <i>he</i> goat.	A <i>she</i> goat.
A <i>man</i> servant.	A <i>maid</i> servant.
A <i>male</i> child.	A <i>female</i> child.
<i>Male</i> descendants.	<i>Female</i> descendants.

71. OBSERVATIONS ON GENDER.

1. Some nouns are either *masculine* or *feminine*; such as *parent, child, cousin, infant, servant, neighbor*. Such are sometimes said to be of the *common gender*.

2. Some nouns naturally neuter are converted by a figure of speech into the masculine or feminine; as when we say of the sun, *He* is setting; of the moon, *She* is eclipsed; and of a ship, *She* sails.

3. In speaking of animals whose sex is not known to us, or not regarded, we assign the masculine gender to those distinguished for boldness, fidelity, generosity, size, strength, etc., as the dog, the horse, the elephant. Thus we say, "The dog is remarkably various in *his* species." On the other hand, we assign the feminine gender to animals characterized by weakness and timidity; as, the hare, the cat, etc., thus, "The cat, as *she* beholds the light, draws the ball of *her* eye small and long."

4. In speaking of animals, particularly those of inferior size, we frequently consider them devoid of sex. Thus, of an infant, we say, "*It is a lovely creature;*" of a cat, "*It is cruel to its enemy.*"

5. When the male and the female are expressed by distinct terms, as, *shepherd, shepherdess*, the masculine term has sometimes also a general meaning, expressing both male and female; and is always to be used when the office, occupation, or profession; and not the sex of the individual, is chiefly to be expressed. The feminine term is used only when the discrimination of sex is indispensably necessary. Thus, when it is said "the Poets of this country are distinguished for correctness of taste," the term "Poet" clearly includes both *male* and *female* writers of poetry

§ 8. NUMBER.

72. NUMBER is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one. Nouns have *two* numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural*. The Singular denotes *one*; the Plural, *more than one*.

GENERAL RULE.

73. The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book, books*.

SPECIAL RULES.

1. Nouns in *s, sh, ch* soft, *z, x, or o*, form the plural by adding *es*; as, *Miss, Misses; brush, brushes; match, matches; fox, foxes; hero, heroes*.

Exc. Nouns in *eo, io* and *yo*, and in *ck* sounding *k*, have *s* only; as, *cameo, cameos; monarch, monarchs*. Also *canto* has *cantos*; but other nouns in *o* after a consonant now commonly add *es*; as, *grotto, grottoes; tyro, tyroes*.

2. Nouns in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *ies* in the plural; as, *lady, ladies*.

Nouns in *y* after a vowel, follow the general rule; as, *day, days*. (35. Exc. 2.)

3. Nouns in *f* or *fe*, change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the plural; as, *loaf, loaves*; *life, lives*.

Exc. Dwarf, scarf, wharf; brief, chief, grief; kerchief, handkerchief, mischief; gulf, turf, surf; fife, strife; proof, hoof, roof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also nouns in *ff* have their plural in *s*; as, *muff, muffs*; except *staff*, which has sometimes *staves*; so *wharf, wharves*.

EXERCISES ON NUMBER.

Give the plural, and the rule for forming it, of—Fox, book, leaf, candle, hat, loaf, wish, fish, sex, box, coach, inch, sky, bounty, army, duty, knife, echo, loss, cargo, wife, story, church, table, glass, study, calf, branch, street, potato, peach, sheaf, booby, rock, stone, house, glory, hope, flower, city, difficulty, distress, wolf.

Day, bay, relay, chimney, journey, valley, needle, enemy, army, vale, ant, volley, hill, sea, key, toy, monarch, tyro, grotto, nuncio, punctilio, embryo, gulf handkerchief, hoof, staff, muff, cliff, whiff, cuff, ruff.

Of what number is—Book, trees, plant, shrub, globes, hills, river, scenes, stars, planets, toys, home, fancy, mosses, glass, state, foxes, house, prints, spoon, bears, lilies, roses, churches, glove, silk, skies, berries, peach?

§ 9. NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

74. Some nouns are irregular in the formation of their plural; as

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Foot	feet	Louse	lice
Ox	oxen		

75. Some nouns have both a regular and irregular form of the plural, but with different significations; as,

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Brother (one of the same family)	brothers
Brother (one of the same society)	brethren
Sow (an individual animal)	sows
Sow or swine (the species)	swine
Die (a small cube for gaming)	dice
Die (a stamp for coining)	dies
Index (a table of reference)	indexes
Index (a character in algebra)	indices
Penny (a coin)	pennies
Penny (a sum or value)	pence

76. Some compounds pluralize the first word; as,

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Aid-de-camp	aids-de-camp	Cousin-german	cousins-german
Court-martial	courts-martial	Father-in-law	fathers-in-law

77. Words from foreign languages sometimes retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on* have *a* in the plural; but those in *is* in the singular, change it into *es* in the plural. The following are the most common, of which some also have a regular English plural; these are marked R:

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Animalculum	animalcula R	Genus	genera
Antithesis	antitheses	Genius (a spirit)	genii
Apex	apices	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Appendix	appendices R	Ignis fatuus	ignes fatui
Arcanum	arcana	Lamina	laminae
Automaton	automata R	Magus	magi
Axis	axes	Memorandum	memoranda
Basis	bases	Metamorphosis	metamorphoses
Cherub	cherubim R	Monsieur	messieurs
Crisis	crises	Phenomenon	phenomena
Criterion	criteria	Radius	radii
Datum	data	Stamen	stamina R
Desideratum	desiderata	Seraph	seraphim R
Effluvium	effluvia	Stimulus	stimuli
Ellipsis	ellipses	Stratum	strata
Emphasis	emphases	Vortex	vortices
Encomium	encomia R	Virtuoso	virtuosi
Erratum	errata	Mr (master)	Messrs (messieurs)
Focus	foci		

78. § 10. OBSERVATIONS ON NUMBER.

1. Proper names have the plural, only when they refer to a race or family; as, the *Stuarts*, the *Campbells*; or to several persons of the same name; as, the twelve *Cæsars*, the two *Mr. Bells*, the two *Miss Browns*. But without the numeral, or in addressing letters in which *both* or *all* are equally concerned, and also when the names are *different*, we pluralize the title; as *Misses Brown*, *Messrs. Webster and Skinner*. (§ 60, Rem. 1, 2.)

2. Names of *metals*, *virtues*, *vices*, and things that are weighed or measured, are for the most part confined to the singular number; as, *gold*, *meekness*, *temperance*, *bread*, *beer*, *beef*, etc. Except when different sorts are meant; as *wines*, *teas*, etc.

3. Some nouns are used in the plural only; such as *annals*, *antipodes*, *literati*, *credenda*, *minutiæ*, *banditti*, *data*; and things consisting of two parts, as *bellows*, *scissors*, *pliers*, *tongs*, *lungs*, etc.; or of more than two, as *ashes*, *embers*, *entrails*, *clothes*, etc.

NOTE. For the singular of *literati*, the expression "*one of the literati*" is used; and *bandit* is used as the singular of *banditti*.

4. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as *hose*, *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*, *trout*, *salmon*, *tench*; *apparatus*, *hiatus*, *series*, *species*, *brace*, *dozen*, *head*, *couple*, *score*, *pair*, *hundred*, *thousand*, etc.

NOTE. *Brace*, *dozen*, etc., have sometimes a plural form; as, He bought partridges in *braces*, and books in *scores* and *dozens*. *Cannon*, *shot*, and *sail*, are used in a plural sense. *Foot*, *horse*, *infantry*, and sometimes *cavalry*, meaning bodies of foot, etc., are construed with a plural verb. The singular of *sheep*, *deer*, etc., is distinguished by the article *a*; as, *a sheep*, *a deer*.

5. Some words are plural in *form*, but in *construction* either singular or plural; such as *amends*, *means*, *riches*, *pains*; and the names of certain sciences, as *mathematics*, *metaphysics*, *ethics*, *politics*, *optics*, etc.

NOTE. *Means*, when it points out the instrumentality of one agent, is construed as singular; of more than one, as plural. *Mean*, in the *singular form*, is commonly used to signify a middle between two extremes. *News* is now generally construed in the singular number. *Alms* (*aïmesse*, Ang. Sax.), *riches* (*richesse*, Fr.) are really singular, though now used commonly in a plural sense. *Thanks* is considered a plural noun, though used to denote one expression of gratitude.

EXERCISES ON IRREGULAR NOUNS AND OBSERVATIONS, etc.

Give the plural of — Man, foot, penny, mouse, ox, child, father-in-law, son-in-law, brother; erratum, radius, lamina, automaton, phenomenon, stratum, axis, ellipsis, stamen, index, cherub, seraph.

Of what number is — Dice, arcana, fishermen, geese, dormice, alms, riches, thanks, snuffers, tongs, teeth, woman, child, court-martial, apparatus, minutiae, genii, geniuses, indices, indexes, mathematics, Matthew, John, James?

§ 11. CASES OF NOUNS.

79. CASE is the state or condition of a noun with respect to the other words in a sentence. App. VI.

80. Nouns have three cases; viz., the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*.

81. The *Nominative* case commonly expresses that of which something is said or declared; as, the *sun* shines. See (§ 80.)

82. The *Possessive* denotes possession; as, the *lady's* fan. Also origin or fitness; as, the *sun's* rays, *men's* shoes.

83. The *Objective* denotes the object of some action or relation; as, James assists *Thomas*; they live in *London*.

84. The nominative and objective are alike.

85. The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and *s* to the nominative; as, *John's*.

86. When the plural ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only.

87. NOUNS ARE THUS DECLINED:

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Lady	Ladies	John	—
<i>Poss.</i>	Lady's	Ladies'	John's	—
<i>Obj.</i>	Lady	Ladies	John	—

Proper names generally want the plural. See 78 1

88. OBSERVATIONS ON THE POSSESSIVE.

1. The apostrophe and *s* (*'s*) are an abbreviation for *is* or *es*, the termination of the old English genitive; thus, "the *king's* crown was anciently written, "the *kingis* crown."

2. When the nominative singular ends in *ss*, or in letters of similar sound, the *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, in order to avoid too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "for goodness' sake;" "for conscience'sake." This, however, is seldom done, unless the word following the possessive begins with *s*: thus, we do not say, "the prince' feather;" but, "the prince's feather." (See *An. Gr.* 175).

3. The relation expressed by the *possessive* case, is in general the same with that expressed by the word *of*; thus, "the rage of the tyrant," "the death of the prince," are equivalent to "the tyrant's rage," "the prince's death." Hence when the use of the possessive would appear stiff, it is better to use the preposition *of*, or some equivalent expression instead of it; as "the satellites of Jupiter," "the length of the day," "the garden wall," for "Jupiter's satellites," "the day's length," "the garden's wall." Sometimes, however, the idea expressed by the preposition *of*, with the objective, is different from that expressed by the possessive; thus, "a picture of the king," and "the king's picture," express different ideas; the first means "a *portrait* of the king," the last, "a picture *belonging* to the king."

PARSING THE NOUN.

89. A noun is parsed etymologically (53) by stating its accidents, or grammatical properties; thus, *Father*, a *noun*, *masculine*, in the *nominative singular*. App. IV.

In this way parse all the nouns in the following exercise.

EXERCISES ON GENDER, NUMBER AND CASE.*

Father, brothers, mother's, boys, book, loaf, arms, wife, hats, sisters', bride's, bottles, brush, goose, eagles' wings, echo, ox's horn, mouse, kings, queens, bread, child's toy, grass, tooth, tongs, candle, chair, Jane's boots, Robert's shoe, horse, bridle.

* *Note.* In the use of these exercises, it will save much time, which is very
2*

§ 12. THE ARTICLE.

90. An ARTICLE is a word put before a noun, to show the manner in which it is used. App. VII.

91. There are two articles; *a* or *an*, and *the*.

92. *A* or *an* is called the *Indefinite Article*, because it shews that the noun is not limited to a particular person or thing; as, *a king*; that is, *any king*.

93. *The* is called the *Definite Article*, because it shews that the noun is limited to a particular person or thing; as, *the king*; i. e. *some particular king*.

94. A noun without an article, is taken in its widest sense; as, *Man is mortal*, i. e. *All mankind*: Or, in an indefinite sense; as, *There are men destitute of all shame*, i. e. *some men* (§ 81).

A noun with *the* before it, sometimes denotes the *species*; as, *the oak*, *the lion*.

95. *A* is used before a consonant; as, *a book*.

96. *An* is used before a vowel, or silent *h*; as, *an age*, *an hour*. But

97. *A*, and not *an*, is used before *u* long, and the diphthong *eu*, because these letters have, combined with their sound, the power of initial *y*; thus, *a unit*, *a use*, *a eulogy*. On the other hand, *an* is used before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an heroic action*, *an historical account*; because the *h* in such words is but slightly sounded.

important in a large school, if the pupil be taught to express all that is necessary in parsing these or other words, in as few words as possible, and always in the same order, thus: *Father*, a noun, masculine, in the nominative singular. *Mother's*, a noun, feminine, in the possessive singular. It will also be a profitable exercise for him to assign a reason for every part of his description, thus: *Father*, a noun, because the name of an object; masculine, because it denotes the male sex; singular, because it denotes but one; plural, *fathers*—Rule, "The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular."

PARSING. An article is parsed by stating whether *definite* or *indefinite*, and to what noun it belongs.

EXERCISES ON THE ARTICLES.

Prefix the indefinite article to the words, river, hope, army, hermit, infant, uncle, humor, usurper, hostler, wish, youth, umbrage, oyster, herb, thought, honor, elephant, husband.

Correct what follows, and give a reason for the change.
A inkstand, an handful, a article, a humble man, an ewe, a anchor, an useful book, an history, an humorous tale, an hedge, an union.

§ 13. THE ADJECTIVE.

98. An **ADJECTIVE** is a word used to qualify a noun or substantive; as, a *good* boy; a *square* box; *ten* dollars. App. VIII.

99. **NOTE.** A noun is qualified by an adjective when the object named is thereby *described*, *limited* or *distinguished* from other things of the same name.

100. An adjective in the predicate may qualify a *pronoun*, an *infinitive mood*, or *substantive clause*; as, *He is poor*. *To play is pleasant*. *That the rich are happy*, is not always true.

101. Nouns become adjectives when they are used to express the quality of other nouns; as, *gold* ring, *silver* cup, *sea* water.

102. On the contrary, adjectives are often used as nouns; as, "God rewards the *good*, and punishes the *bad*." "The *virtuous* are the most happy." Adjectives thus used are usually preceded by the definite article; and when applied to persons, are considered plural. (§ 40, Rule VII.)

103. Adjectives which express number, are called *Numeral adjectives*. They are of two kinds, *Cardinal* and *Ordinal*. The *cardinal* answer the question "*how many?*" and are *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, *six*, etc. The *ordinal* answer the question, "*which of the number?*" They are *first*, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, etc. In compound numbers, the last only has the cardinal form; as, *thirty-second*; three hundred and forty-*third*.

§ 14. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

104. ADJECTIVES have three degrees of comparison; namely, the *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*. App. IX.

105. The *Positive* expresses the quality *simply*: the *Comparative* asserts it in a *higher* or *lower degree* in one object than in another: and the *Superlative*, in the highest or lowest degree compared with several; thus, Gold is *heavier* than silver; it is the *most precious* of the metals.

106. In adjectives of *one* syllable, the *Comparative* is formed by adding *-er* to the *Positive*; and the *Superlative*, by adding *-est*; as, *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest*.

107. Adjectives of *more* than one syllable are compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the *positive*; as, *numerous*, *more numerous*, *most numerous*.

108.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Dissyllables in *le* after a mute, are generally compared by *er* and *est*: as, *able*, *abler*, *ablest* (37, R. VII). Dissyllables in *y* change *y* into *i* before *-er* and *-est*; as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*. But *y* with a vowel before it, is not changed; as, *gay*, *gayer*, *gayest* (35. Exc. 2).

2. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding *most* to the end of the word; as, *upper*, *uppermost*. So, *undermost*, *foremost*, *hindmost*, *utmost*.

3. When the positive ends in a simple consonant, preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before *er* and *est*; as, *hot*, *hotter*, *hottest* (31. Rule III).

4. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison, viz:

1. Such as denote *number*; as, *one*, *two*; *third*, *fourth*.
2. ————— *figure* or *shape*; as, *circular*, *square*.
3. ————— *posture* or *position*; as, *perpendicular*.
4. Those of an absolute or superlative signification; as, *true* *perfect*, *universal*, *chief*, *extreme*, etc (§ 72. Obs)

REMARK.—Of these last, however, comparative and superlative forms are sometimes used by the best writers; as, “The *extremest* of evils.”—Bacon. “The *chiefest* of the herdsmen.”—Bible.

5. Such adjectives as *superior*, *inferior*, *exterior*, *interior*, etc., though they involve the idea of comparison, are not to be considered as in the comparative degree, any more than such adjectives as *preferable*, *previous*, etc. They neither have the form of the comparative, nor are they ever construed with *than* after them, as comparatives in English commonly are. (See Syntax § 71, Rule XXII).

6. The superlative degree implying comparison, is usually preceded by the definite article. When preceded by the indefinite article, it does not imply comparison, but *eminence*; as, “He is a most distinguished man.” The same thing nearly is expressed by prefixing the adverb *very*, *exceedingly* and the like which is sometimes called the *superlative of eminence*.

7. Without implying comparison, the signification of the positive is sometimes lessened by the termination *ish*; as, *white*, *whitish*, *black*, *blackish*. These may properly be called *diminutive adjectives*. The adverb *rather*, expresses a small degree of the quality; as, *rather little*.

109. ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
Good	better	best
Bad, evil or ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

Obs. *Much* is applied to things *weighed* or *measured*; *many*, to those that are *numbered*. *Elder* and *eldest* are applied to *persons* only; *older* and *oldest*, to either *persons* or *things*.

EXERCISES.

Of what degree of comparison is — Sweet, kinder, warmest, prompt, firmest, bright, high, cold, nobler, broader, bravest, more pleasant, most desirable, softer?

Compare—Great, small, rough, smooth, happy, noble, gay, good, little, much, worthless, ambitious, old, young.

110. **PARSING.**—An adjective is parsed by stating its *degree* comparing it (if compared), and the noun which it qualifies; thus, *A good man.* *Good* is an adjective, *positive* degree, compared irregularly, *good, better, best*, and qualifies *man*.

EXERCISES ON THE ARTICLE, NOUN, AND ADJECTIVE.

Distinguish and parse as directed all the words in this exercise :

A good man; a kind heart; a clear sky; the benevolent lady; the highest hill; a skilful artist; an older companion; man's chief concern; a lady's lapdog; most splendid talents; the liveliest disposition; a pleasant temper; the raging billows; temples magnificent; silent shades; excellent weather; a loftier tower.

§ 15. PRONOUNS.

111. A **PRONOUN** is a word used instead of a noun; as, *John* is a good boy; *he* is diligent in *his* studies. App. X.

112. Pronouns may be divided into four classes; *Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Adjective.*

113. The personal pronouns are, *I, thou, he, she, it.* They are thus declined :

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
1. <i>M. or F.</i>	I	mine	me	We	ours	us
2. <i>M. or F.</i>	Thou	thine	thee	You, (ye)	yours	you
3. <i>Masc.</i>	He	his	him	They	theirs	them
3. <i>Fem.</i>	She	hers	her	They	theirs	them
3. <i>Neut.</i>	It	its	it	They	theirs	them

114. OBSERVATIONS ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. *I* is of the *first* person, and denotes the *speaker*. *Thou* is of the *second*, and denotes the person spoken to. *He, she, and it*, are of the *third* person, and denote the person or thing spoken of. So also of their plurals, *we, you (ye), they*.

2. *Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself*, with their plurals *ourselves, yourselves, themselves*, may be called *Compound personal pronouns*. They are used in the nominative and the objective case. In the nominative they are *emphatic*, and are added to their respective personal pronouns, or are used instead of them; as, "*I myself* did it;" "*himself* shall come." In the objective, they are *reflexive*, showing that the *agent* is also the *object* of his own act; as, "Judas went and hanged *himself*."

3. In proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, *we* is frequently applied to one person.

4. In addressing persons, *you* is commonly put both for the singular and the plural, and has always a plural verb. *Thou* is used only in addresses to the Deity, or any important object in nature; or to mark special emphasis, or, in the language of contempt. The plural form *ye* is now but seldom used. (App. XI.)

5. The pronoun *it*, besides its use as the neuter pronoun of the third person, is also used *indefinitely* with the verb *to be* in the third person singular, for all genders, numbers, and persons; as, *It is I, it is we, it is you, it is they; It was she*, etc.

6. *Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*, should never be written *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's*.

PARSING PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

115. The personal pronouns may be parsed briefly thus: *I*, the first personal pronoun, masculine (or feminine), in the nominative singular. *His*, the third personal pronoun, masculine, in the possessive singular.

EXERCISES ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

*Parse the following as directed above:—*I, thou, we, me, us, thine, he, him, she, hers, they, thee, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, I, me, them, us.

§ 16. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

116. A RELATIVE Pronoun is a word that relates to, and connects its clause with, a noun or pronoun before it, called the antecedent ; as, "The *master who* taught us."

117. The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what* (App. XII). They are alike in both numbers. *That* and *what* are indeclinable, and used only in the nominative and objective. *Who* and *which* are thus declined.

	<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>	<i>Sing. and Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	Which.
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,	Whose.
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom,	Which.

118. *Who* is applied to persons ; as, "The boy *who* reads."

Obs. Also to inferior animals, and things without life, when they are represented as speaking and acting like rational beings.

119. *Which* is applied to inferior animals and things without life ; as, "The dog *which* barks ;" "The book *which* was lost."

NOTE. *Which* is applied also to collective nouns expressing many persons as one whole ; as, "The court of Spain *which* ;" "the company *which*." And likewise after the name of a person used merely as a word ; as, "The *court* of Queen Elizabeth, *which* was but another name for prudence and economy."

Which was formerly applied to persons as well as things and is so used in the common version of the Scriptures.

120. *That* is often used as a relative, to prevent the too frequent repetition of *who* or *which*. It is applied both to persons and things. § 58, Rem. 3.

121. *What* is applied to *things* only, and is never used but when the antecedent is omitted; as, "This is *what* I wanted,"=the *thing which* I wanted. XIII

122. OBSERVATIONS ON THE RELATIVE.

1. *Which* has for its possessive *whose*; as, A religion *whose* origin is divine. Instead of *whose*, however, the objective with *of* before it, is more commonly used; as, A religion the origin *of which* is divine.

2. *What* and *which* are sometimes used as adjectives; that is, they agree with a substantive following them; as, "I know not by *what* fatality the adversaries of the measure are impelled;" *Which* things are an allegory." In this sense, *which* applies either to persons or things, and in meaning is equivalent to *this* or *these*.

3. *Whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatever* and *whatsoever* are also used as compound relatives, and are equivalent to the relative and a general or indefinite antecedent; as, "*Whosoever* committeth sin is the servant of sin;" that is "*any one*," or "*every one who* committeth sin, etc." "*Whatsoever* things are of good report;" i. e. "*All things* (without exception) *which* are of good report" (§ 59, Rule III; § 63, 8).

4. *Who*, and also *which*, and *what* without a substantive following them, in responsive sentences, or in sentences similarly constructed, are properly neither relatives nor adjectives, but a kind of indefinite pronouns. Thus, when to the question "Who is the author of that poem?" it is replied, "I do not know *who* is its author," the word "*who*" is evidently not a relative; for if it were, then, with the antecedent supplied, the sentence would be "I do not know the person who is its author." These two sentences, however, are clearly not equivalent; the former means "I do not know by what person it was written;" the latter, "I have no knowledge of him, I am not acquainted with him." The

first is a direct answer to the question, the last is no answer at all, but would be considered as an evasion.

123. **PARSING.**—The relative is parsed by stating its gender, number, and case, thus; “The boy *who* reads,”—*Who*, a relative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular, and refers to *boy*, as its antecedent.

NOTE.—The *gender* and *number* of the relative, are always the same as those of the antecedent.

§ 17. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

124. In asking questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called **INTERROGATIVE** pronouns.

125. As interrogatives, *who* is applied to persons only; *which* and *what*, either to persons or things. *What* admits of no variation.

OBSERVATIONS.

126. **Obs. 1.** In the use of the interrogatives as applied to persons, the following distinction is to be observed; namely, *Who* is used when we inquire after a person or persons unknown; as, *Who* did it? *Which* is used when we inquire after one or more of a number present, or already spoken of; as, *Which* of them did it? *Which* of these men is the president? *What* is used when the character, or a description of a person is inquired after, and not the name or the individual merely; as, *What* is he?

127. **Obs. 2.** When a defining term is added, either *what* or *which* may be used; as, *What* man, or *which* man among you? *

128. **Obs. 3.** *Whether* (now used as a conjunction only) was formerly used as an interrogative pronoun, equivalent to *which* of the two? as, “*Whether* is greater, the gold, or the temple?” Its place is now supplied by *which*.

129. **Obs. 4.** In answers to questions made by these interrogatives, the same words are used as *responsives*; as, *Who* did it? I know not *who* did it. *Which* of them did it? I know not *which* of them did it (See § 16, **Obs. 4**).

§ 18. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

130. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS are words used sometimes like adjectives to qualify a noun, and sometimes like pronouns to stand instead of nouns.

131. Adjective pronouns are divided into four classes; namely, *Possessive*, *Distributive*, *Demonstrative*, and *Indefinite*.

132. The *Possessive* pronouns are such as denote *possession*. They are *My*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, *its own*.

133. OBS. 1. The possessive pronoun is in fact only another form of the possessive case of the personal pronoun, having the same meaning but a different construction. The possessive pronoun, like the adjective, is always followed by a substantive; as, This is *my* book. The possessive case of the personal pronoun is never followed by a substantive, but refers to one previously expressed; as, this book is *mine*. The possessive case of the substantive is used both ways; as this book is *John's*; or, this is *John's* book. (App. XIV.)

134. OBS. 2. *His* and *her* when followed by a substantive are possessive pronouns; not followed by a substantive, *his* is the possessive case of *he*; and *her* is the objective case of *she*.

135. OBS. 3. *Mine* and *thine* were formerly used, before a vowel or the letter *h*, as possessives for *my* and *thy*; as, "Blot out all *mine* iniquities;" "Commune with *thine* heart."

136. OBS. 4. *Own* is not used as a possessive pronoun by itself, but is added to the other possessive pronouns, and to the possessive case of nouns, to render them emphatic; as, *My own* book; The boy's *own* book. The possessive pronoun with *own* following it, may stand alone, having its substantive understood; as, It is *my own*.

137. The *distributive* pronouns represent objects as taken separately. They are *Each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

138. OBS. 1. *Each* denotes two things taken separately; or every one of any number taken *singly*. *Every* denotes *more* than two things taken individually, and comprehends them all. *Either* means one of two, but not both. *Neither* means *not either*. *Each other* applies to two; *one another*, to more than two.

139. The *demonstrative* pronouns point out objects definitely. They are, *This* and *that*, with their plurals *these* and *those*.

140. OBS. 1. *You*, and *former* and *latter*, may be called demonstrative pronouns, as well as *this* and *that*.

141. OBS. 2. *That* is sometimes a *relative*, sometimes a *demonstrative*, and sometimes a *conjunction*.

1. It is a *relative*, when it can be turned into *who* or *which*; as, The days *that* (or *which*) are past; are gone forever.

2. It is a *demonstrative*, when it is placed before a noun, or refers to one at some distance from it; as, *That* book is new; *that* is what I want.

3. It is a *conjunction* when it can not be changed into *who* or *which*, but marks a consequence, an indication, or final end; as, He was so proud, *that* he was universally despised: He answered, that he never was so happy as now: Live well, *that* you may be happy.

142. The *indefinite* pronouns denote persons or things indefinitely. They are, *None*, *any*, *all*, *such*, *whole*, *some*, *both*, *one*, *other*. The two last are declined like nouns.

143. Among the indefinites may also be reckoned such words as, *no*, *few*, *many*, *several*, and the like; as well as the compounds, *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, etc., and *who*, *which*, and *what*, in responsive sentences (§ 16, Obs. 4).

144. *None* is used in both numbers, but it can not be joined to a noun. (App. XIV.)

145. PARSING ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjective Pronouns are parsed by stating the class to which they belong and the word which they qualify; thus, "*My* book." *My*, a possessive adjective pronoun, qualifying *book*.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON NOUNS, etc.

Distinguish and parse etymologically the words in the following exercises, as previously directed.

A man, he, who, which, that, his, me, mine, thine, whose, they, hers, it, we, us, I, him, its, horse, mare, master, thou, theirs, thee, you, my, thy, our, your, their, his, her; this, these; that, those; each, every, other any, none, bride, daughter, uncle, wife's, sir, girl, madam, box, dog, lad; a gay lady; sweet apples; strong bulls; fat oxen; a mountainous country.

Compare—Rich, merry, furious, covetous, large, little, good, bad, near, wretched, rigorous, delightful, sprightly, spacious, splendid, gay, imprudent, pretty.

The human mind; cold water; he, thou, she, it; woody mountains; the naked rock; youthful jollity; goodness divine; justice severe; this, thy, others, one; a peevish boy; hers, their strokes; pretty girls; his rapid flight; her delicate cheeks; a man who; the sun that; a bird which; himself, themselves, itself; that house; these books.

Correct—The person *which* waited on us yesterday. The horse who rode down the man. The dog who was chained at the door. Those sort of trees. These kind of persons. The angel which appeared to Moses. The boys which learned their lessons so well. The sun who shines so bright. Those kind of amusements. The woman which told me the story. The messenger which carried the letter. The court who sat last week. The member which spoke last. I have brought three books, you may take either of them, or neither of them. There were twenty men, each with a spear; but neither of them was fully armed.

§ 19. THE VERB.

146. A VERB is a word used to express the *act*, *being*, or *state* of its subject; as, *I write*; *you are*; *time flies*; *he is loved*. App. XV.

147. The use of the verb in simple propositions is to affirm or declare; that of which it affirms, is called its *subject* or *nominative*.

148. Verbs are of two kinds; *Transitive* and *Intransitive*. App. XVI.

149. A TRANSITIVE VERB expresses an act done by one person or thing to another; as, "*James strikes the table*." "*The table is struck by James*." It has two forms, called the *Active* and the *Passive* voice (§ 21).

150. An INTRANSITIVE VERB expresses the *being*, or *state* of its subject, or an *act* not done to another; as, *I am*, *he sleeps*, *you run*.

151. In this division, *Transitive* verbs include all those which express an act that *passes over* from the actor to an object acted upon; as, *He loves us*; *We are loved by him*. *Intransitive* verbs include all verbs not transitive, whether they express an action or not; as, *I am*, *you walk*, *they run* (See § 21, *Obs.* 2, 3).

152. Intransitive verbs, from their nature, can have no distinction of voice. Their form is generally active; as, *I stand*, *I run*. A few admit also the passive form; as, "*He is come*;" "*they are gone*;" equivalent to "*He has come*;" "*they have gone*."

153. Intransitive verbs are sometimes rendered transitive, and so capable of a passive form, viz:

1. By the addition of another word; as, Intrans. *I laugh*; Trans. *I laugh at*; Passive, *I am laughed at*.
2. By adding as an object, a noun of similar signification; as, Intr. *I run*; Tr. *I run a race*; Passive, *A race is run*.
3. When used *causatively*, to denote the causing of the act or state which they properly express; as, *Walk your horse round the yard*, i. e. *Cause your horse to walk*, etc.

154. Transitive verbs in the active voice, and intransitive verbs, being of the same form, can be distinguished only by their signification and construction. The following marks will enable the student to make this necessary distinction with ease and certainty.

1st. A transitive verb in the active voice requires an object after it to complete the sense; as, The boy studies *grammar* (§ 48, Rem. 3). An intransitive verb requires no object after it, but the sense is complete without it; as, He *sits*, you *ride*.

2d. Every transitive active verb can be changed into the passive form; thus, "James strikes the table," can be changed into "The table is struck by James." But the intransitive verb can not be so changed; thus, I *smile*, can not be changed into I *am smiled*.

3d. In the use of the transitive verb there are always *three* things implied; the *actor*, the *act*, and the *object* acted upon; in the use of the intransitive there are only *two*; the *subject* or thing spoken of, and the *state* or *action* attributed to it.

155. A transitive verb without an object is used intransitively; as, He *reads* and *writes* well = He is a good reader and writer.

156. In respect of form, verbs are divided into *Regular*, *Irregular*, and *Defective*.

157. A **REGULAR** verb is one that forms its *Past tense* in the Indicative active, and its *Past participle* by adding *ed* to the Present; as, Present, *love*; Past, *loved*; Past participle, *loved* (37).

158. An **IRREGULAR** verb is one that does not form its *Past tense* in the Indicative active, and *Past participle*, by adding *ed* to the Present; thus, Present, *write*; Past, *wrote*; Past participle, *written*.

159. A **DEFECTIVE** verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. To this class belong chiefly *Auxiliary* and *Impersonal* verbs.

§ 20. AUXILIARY VERBS.

160. The AUXILIARY, or *helping verbs*, by the help of which verbs are principally inflected, are the following, which, as auxiliaries, are used only in the present and the past tense; viz.

Pres. Do, have, shall, will, may, can, am, must

Past. Did, had, should, would, might, could, was, —

The verb *to be* is used as an auxiliary, in all its tenses.

161. *Am, do, and have*, are also principal verbs.

162. OBSERVATIONS.

1. *Let* (used by some Grammarians as an auxiliary in the imperative mood), is properly a transitive verb, and complete. *Ought* is a defective verb, having, like *must*, only the present tense.

2. *Shall* implies duty or obligation; *will*, purpose or resolution; *may*, liberty; *can*, ability. Of these verbs, the past tense *should*, *would*, *might*, *could*, is very indefinite with respect to time, being used to express duty, purpose, liberty, and ability, sometimes with regard to what is *past*, sometimes with regard to what is *present*, and sometimes with regard to what is *future*; thus,
Past. He *could* not do it then, for he was otherwise engaged.
Present. I *would* do it with pleasure, if I *could*.

Future. If he *would* delay his journey a few days, I *might* (*could, would or should*), accompany him.

In these and similar examples, the auxiliaries may be considered simply as denoting *liberty, ability, will, or duty*, without any reference to time in themselves, and that the precise time is indicated by the scope of the sentence. The same observation applies to *must* and *ought*, implying *necessity* and *obligation*.

3. *Would* is sometimes used to denote what was customary; as in the examples, "He would say;" "He would desire," etc. Thus,

Pleased with my admiration, and the fire
 His speech struck from me, the old man *would* shake
 His years away, and act his young encounters;
 Then, having showed his wounds, *he'd* sit (him) down.

Of WILL and SHALL, WOULD and SHOULD.

163. *Will* and *shall*, auxiliaries in the future, sometimes express *resolution* or *purpose*, and sometimes *simple futurity*. They may be thus distinguished :

RESOLUTION OR PURPOSE.

164. *WILL* expresses the *will*, *purpose*, *resolution*, or *promise* of the subject with respect to his own acts. Thus, *I will go*, thou *will go*, he *will go*, express the resolution, etc. of the subject *I*, *thou*, *he*.

165. *SHALL* expresses the purpose, resolution, etc. not of the subject, but of another by whom the act is determined. Thus, *I shall go*, thou *shalt go*, James *shall go*, express the resolution, not of *I*, *thou*, *James*, respectively, but of some other; as, *John* is resolved that *I shall go*, etc.

SIMPLE FUTURITY.

166. *SHALL* is used when a person foretels what is future in respect to himself; as, *I think that I shall go*.

167. *WILL* is used in the *second* and the *third* person, and *SHALL* in the *first*, when a person foretels what is future in respect to others; as, *I think that you will go*, that *he will go*. *He* thinks that *I shall go*.

168. But after such words as *if*, *though*, *provided*, *unless*, or *when*, *while*, *until*, *after*, etc., or after the relative in a restrictive clause, *shall* is used instead of *will* to denote futurity; as, *If he shall go*; *When he shall appear*; *All who shall subscribe*

WILL and SHALL interrogatively.

169. In asking questions as to the *will*, *purpose*, *resolution*, or *promise* of the person addressed, *SHALL* is used in the *first* and the *third* person, and *WILL* in the *second*; as, *Shall I go?* *Shall he go?* *Will you go?* = *Is it your purpose that I shall go*, etc.?

170. But in asking questions relative to *simple futurity*, *SHALL* is used in the *first* and the *second* person, and *WILL* in the *third*; as, *Shall I arrive in time?* *Shall you be at home?* *Will the stage arrive soon?*

171. *Should* and *would* are subject to the same rules as *shall* and *will*. They are generally attended with a supposition; as, *Were I to run*, *I should soon be fatigued*

172. *Should* is often used instead of *ought*, to express present duty or obligation; as, "We *should* remember the poor;" = We *ought* to remember the poor.

173. *Would* is sometimes used as a principal verb for *I wish*; as, "*Would* that they were gone," for "*I wish* that they were gone." "When I make a feast, I *would* my guests should praise it—not the cooks." Thus used, it is in the present tense. As a past tense, it implies strong negation; as, "Ye *would* none of my reproof."

§ 21. INFLECTION OF VERBS.

174. To the inflection of verbs belong, *Voices*, *Moods*, *Tenses*, *Numbers*, and *Persons*.

VOICE.

175. VOICE is a particular form of the verb, which shows the relation of the *subject*, or thing spoken of, to the *action* expressed by the verb.

176. In English the transitive verb has two voices, the *Active* and the *Passive*.

177. The ACTIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as acting; as, "James *strikes* the table."

Here the verb "*strikes*," in the active voice, indicates that its subject "*James*" acts.

178. The PASSIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as acted upon; as, "The table *is struck* by James."

Here the verb "*is struck*," in the passive voice, indicates that its subject "*table*" is acted upon.

179. OBSERVATIONS.

1. The transitive verb always expresses the *same act*, whether it be in the active or passive form. In both it is equally transitive, i. e. the act expressed by it in either form, *passes over* from the

person or thing acting, to the person or thing acted upon. Hence the same idea may be expressed with equal propriety in both forms, simply by changing the *object* of the active voice into the *subject* of the passive; thus,

Actively. *Cæsar conquered Gaul.*

Passively. *Gaul was conquered by Cæsar.*

2. The same verbs are sometimes used in a transitive, and sometimes in an intransitive sense; thus, in the phrase, "*Charity thinketh no evil*," *think* is transitive; in the phrase, "*Think on me*," it is intransitive.

3. Many verbs in the active voice, by an idiom peculiar to the English, are used in a sense nearly allied to the passive, but for which the passive will not always be a proper substitute. Thus, we say, "*This field ploughs well*;" "*These lines read smoothly*;" "*This fruit tastes bitter*;" "*Linen wears better than cotton*." The idea here expressed, is quite different from that expressed by the passive form, "*This field is well ploughed*;" "*These lines are smoothly read*." Sometimes, however, the same idea is expressed by both forms; thus, "*Wheat sells readily*," or "*is sold readily at an advanced price*." Expressions of this kind are usually made in French by the reflected verb; thus, "*Ce champ se laboure bien*;" "*Ces lignes se lisent aisément*." When used in this sense, they may properly be ranked with intransitive verbs, as they are never followed by an objective case.

§ 22. MOODS.*

180. Mood is the *mode* or *manner* of expressing the signification of the verb.

181. Verbs have *five* moods; namely, the *Indicative*, *Potential*, *Subjunctive*, *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*. App. XVII.

* Explanations of the moods and tenses of verbs, are inserted here for the sake of order: but it would perhaps be improper to detain the learner so long as to commit them to memory: He may, therefore, after getting the definition of a verb, proceed to the inflection of it, without delay; and when he comes to the exercises on the verbs, he can look back to the definition of verbs, moods, &c., as occasion may require

1. The *Indicative* mood declares the fact expressed by the verb, *simply* and *without limitation*; as, *He loves*; *He is loved*.

2. The *Potential* mood declares, not the fact expressed by the verb, but only its *possibility*, or the *liberty*, *power*, *will*, or *obligation* of the subject with respect to it; as, *The wind may blow*; *We may walk or ride*; *I can swim*; *He would not stay*; *You should obey* your parents.

3. The *Subjunctive* mood represents the fact expressed by the verb, not as actual, but as conditional, desirable, or contingent; as, "*If* thy presence *go* not with us, carry us not up hence." App. XVIII.

4. The *Imperative* mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits; as, *Do this*; *Remember thy Creator*; *Hear, O my people*; *Go thy way* for this time.

5. The *Infinitive* mood expresses a thing in a general manner, without any distinction of person or number, and commonly has *to* before it; as, *To love*.

182. OBSERVATIONS ON THE MOODS.

1. The future indicative is sometimes used potentially; i. e. the auxiliaries *will* and *shall* belong to the present potential, as well as *may*, or *can*, or *must*, when they express *present willingness* or *obligation*. In this case, the futurity implied is contingent, and not absolute; as, *He will* do it, if properly solicited. And hence the corresponding *would* and *should*, as well as *might* and *could*, belong to the past tense. The potential mood has no future tense.

2. The subjunctive mood is always dependent upon, or is *subjoined* to, another verb, expressed or understood. It is sometimes

called *conjunctive*, because it is usually preceded by a conjunction; as, *if, though, unless*, etc. Sometimes it is called *conditional*, because it usually expresses a condition on which something is suspended. It differs in form from the indicative, in the present tense only; in the verb *to be*, in the present and past.

NOTE. Both the indicative and potential, with a conjunctive particle prefixed, are used subjunctively; i. e. they are used to express what is conditional or contingent, and with dependence on another verb; as, "If he *sleeps* (now), he will do well;" "He would go, if he *could* (go)."

3. The imperative mood, strictly speaking, has only the second person, singular and plural; because, in commanding, exhorting, etc., the language of address is always used; thus, "Let him love," is equivalent to, "Let thou him love;" where *Let* is the proper imperative, and *love* the infinitive governed by it. (Syntax, 387.)

4. The infinitive mood may be considered as a verbal noun, having the nominative and objective cases, but not the possessive; and hence it is used both as the subject of another verb, and as the object after it. (Syntax, § 47, Rule II.; and § 48, Rule I.)

§ 23. TENSES OR DISTINCTIONS OF TIME.

183. TENSES are certain forms of the verb, which serve to point out the distinctions of time.

184. Time is naturally divided into the *Present*, *Past* and *Future*: And an action may be represented, either as incomplete and continuing, or, as completed at the time spoken of. This gives rise to six tenses, only two of which are expressed in English by a distinct form of the verb. The others are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs, thus:

PRESENT.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I love, I do love, or I am loving.
	{ <i>Action completed</i> , as, I have loved.
PAST.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I loved, I did love, or I was loving.
	{ <i>Action completed</i> ; as I had loved.
FUTURE.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I shall or will love
	{ <i>Action completed</i> ; as, I shall have loved.

185. The tenses in English are six, namely : the *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, the *Past-perfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future-perfect*.

1. The *Present* tense expresses what is going on at the present time ; as, I *love* you.

2. The *Present-perfect* tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time ; as, " John *has cut* his finger ;" " I *have sold* my horse ;" " I *have done* nothing this week."

3. The *Past* tense expresses what took place in past time ; as, " God *said*, let there be light ;" " The ship *sailed* when the mail *arrived*."

4. The *Past-perfect* tense represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time ; as, " I *had walked* six miles that day ;" " All the judges *had taken* their places before Sir Roger came."

5. The *Future* tense expresses what will take place in future time ; as, " I *will see* you again, and your hearts *shall rejoice*."

6. The *Future-perfect* tense intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future ; as, " I *shall have got* my lesson before ten o'clock to-morrow."

NOTE. The tenses inflected without an auxiliary are called **SIMPLE** tenses ; those with an auxiliary, are called **COMPOUND** tenses. In the common form of the verb, the *simple* tenses are the Present and Past Indicative and Subjunctive, Active ; all the other tenses are *compound*

186. § 24. OBSERVATIONS ON THE TENSES.

I. The Present tense in the simple form is used as follows:

1. It expresses the simple existence of the fact; as, *He speaks*, *She writes*; *They walk*.

2. It is used to express what is habitual or always true; as, *He takes snuff*; *She goes to church*; *Virtue is its own reward*. In this sense it is applied to express the feelings which persons long since dead, or events already past usually excite in our minds; as, *Nero is abhorred* for his cruelty; *Milton is admired* for his sublimity.

3. In historical narration, it is used with great effect for the Past tense; as, "*Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy with five thousand men.*" (552.5).

4. It is used sometimes, instead of the *present-perfect* tense, in speaking of authors long since dead, when reference is made to their works which still exist; as, "*Moses tells us who were the descendants of Abraham*;" "*Virgil imitates Homer*;" instead of "*has told*," "*has imitated*."

5. When preceded by such words as *when*, *before*, *as soon as*, *after*, and the like, it expresses the relative time of a future action; as, *When he comes, he will be welcome*; *As soon as the Post arrives, the letters will be distributed*.

II. The Present-perfect—In the use of this tense, it matters not how long ago the act referred to may have been performed, if it were in a period reaching to and embracing the present, or a part of which is not yet past; as, "*Many discoveries in the arts have been made since the days of Bacon*" (that is, in the period reaching from that time to the present). On the other hand, if the time of an act mentioned is past, and does not include the present, this tense can not be used, however near the time may be. Thus, we can not properly say, "*I have seen your friend a moment ago*;" but "*I saw your friend*," etc. The following usages may be noticed.

1. This tense is used to express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to the present; as, "*He has studied grammar six months*"—" *He has been absent [now] six years*."

2. It is used to express acts long since completed, when the reference is not to the act of finishing, but to the thing finished and

still existing; as, "*Cicero has written orations*"—"Moses *has told us* many important facts in his writings"—"Of old thou *hast laid* the foundation of the earth, and the heavens are the work of thy hand." But if the thing completed does not now exist, or if the reference is to the act of finishing, and not to the present continuance of the thing finished, this tense can not be used; thus, we can not say, "*Cicero has written poems*," because no such productions now remain. Nor, "In the beginning God *has created* the heavens," because reference is only to the act of God at a certain past time indicated by the words "In the beginning."

3. It is used in the same manner as the present (186, I, 5), instead of the future-perfect, to represent an action, etc., as perfect at a future time; as, "The cock shall not crow, till thou *hast denied* me thrice."

4. Sometimes this tense is used in effect to *deny* the present existence of that of which the verb expresses the completion; as, "*I have been young*"—meaning, this is now finished—I am young no more; that is, "*I am old*."

NOTE.—This tense corresponds to the Latin *perfect definite*.

III.—1. The *Past* tense—The time expressed by this tense is regarded as *entirely past*, and, however near to the present, it does not embrace it; as, I *saw* your friend a moment ago—"I *wrote* yesterday."

2. In such expressions as "*I wrote this morning*"—"this week"—"*this year*," etc., the reference is to a point of time now entirely past, in these yet unfinished periods.

3. This tense is used to express what was *customary* in past time; as, "She *attended* church regularly all her life."

IV. The *Past-perfect* tense (*Pluperfect*) has the same relation to the *Past* tense that the *Present-perfect* has to the *Present* tense. It connects the action or event expressed by the verb with some point or period of time now wholly past, *at or before* which it was completed; as, *then, yesterday, last century*, etc.; as "He *had THEN studied* grammar six months;" "He *had been* a soldier in his youth;" "I *had written* yesterday; Many discoveries in philosophy and the arts *had been made* before the days of Bacon."

V. The same general observations apply to the *Future* and *Future-perfect* tenses, in relation to a point or period of time yet future.

VI. The six tenses here enumerated are all found only in the indicative. The potential has only four tenses; the subjunctive, one, sometimes two, in a form distinct from that of the indicative; the imperative but one; the infinitive two; and the participle three.

VII. The Past tenses both of the potential and the subjunctive mood are much less definite with respect to the time of the action or state expressed by the verb, than the same tenses in the indicative. For examples of this in the potential mood, see § 20 OBS. 2.

The *Past* subjunctive expresses contingency, etc., respecting what is past, but yet unknown, only when referring to past time expressed or implied; as, "*If I saw* your friend last year, I have forgotten it." But in connection with the potential mood, or not referring to past time, the *Past* subjunctive has this peculiarity of usage—it expresses a supposition with respect to something *present*, but *implies a denial of the thing supposed*; thus, "*If I had* the money *now*, I would pay it," implies that I have it *not*, "*If he were* well [now], he would go;" implying "*he is sick*." The present tense here conveys a very different idea; thus, "*If I have* the money, I will pay it," etc. In order to express the first of these examples in *past time*, the *Past-perfect* must be used; thus, "*If I had had* the money yesterday, I would have paid it."

§ 25. PARTICIPLES.

187. A PARTICIPLE is a word which, as a verb, expresses an action or state, and, as an adjective, qualifies a noun; as, "*He came seeing*;" "*Having finished* our task, we may play."

188. Participles are so called, because they belong partly to the *verb*, and partly to the *adjective*. From the former, they have *signification*, *voice*, and *tense*; and they perform the *office* of the latter.

189. Verbs have three participles; the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*; as, *loving*, *loved*, *having*

loved, in the active voice; and *being loved*, *loved*, *having been loved*, in the passive.

190. The present participle in the active voice ends always in *ing*. In all verbs, it has an active signification, and denotes an action or state as continuing and progressive; as, "James is *building* a house." In some verbs, it has also a passive progressive signification; as, "The house is *building*." App. XIX.

191. The *Present* participle passive has always a passive signification, but it has the same difference of meaning with respect to the time or state of the action as the present indicative passive App. XIX.

192. The *Past* participle has the same form in both voices. In the *active voice*, it belongs equally to transitive and intransitive verbs—has always an active sense—forms, with the auxiliaries, the Present-perfect and Past-perfect tenses—and is never found but thus combined; as, "has *loved*," "had *loved*," etc. In the *passive voice*, it has always a passive sense, and, with the verb *to be* as an auxiliary, forms the passive voice; as, "He is *loved*;" or without it, qualifies a noun or pronoun; as, "A man *loved* by all, *hated* by none." The difference between the active and the passive participle will be seen in the following examples, viz: ACTIVE—"He has *concealed* a dagger under his cloak;" PASSIVE—"He has a dagger *concealed* under his cloak."

193. The *Perfect* participle is always compound, and represents an action or state as completed at the time referred to. It has always an active sense in the active voice, and a passive sense in the passive; as, ACTIVE: "Having *finished* our task, we may play." PASSIVE: "Our task *having been finished*, we may play."

194. The *Present* participle active, and the *Past* participle passive, when separated from the idea of time, become adjectives, and are usually called *participial* adjectives; as, "An *amusing* story;" "A *bound* book."

195. The participle in *ing* is often used as a *verbal noun* (§ 5, Obs. 3), having the nominative and objective cases, but not the possessive. As a *verbal noun*, the participle of a transitive verb may still retain the government of the verb; as, "In *keeping* his *commandments*, there is a great reward:" or, it may be divested of it, by inserting the preposition *of* after it; as, "In *the keeping of* his commandments." When *of* follows the participle, *the* should precede it (§ 65, R. XVI).

196. So also the *Perfect* participle; as, "There is satisfaction in *having done* well"—"His *having done* his duty, was afterward a source of satisfaction."

§ 26. NUMBER AND PERSON.

197. Every tense of the verb, except in the infinitive mood, has two NUMBERS, the singular and the plural; and in each of these, three PERSONS.

The *First* person asserts of the person speaking; as, *I* write, *we* write.

The *Second*, asserts of the person spoken to; as, *Thou* writest, *ye* or *you* write.

The *Third*, asserts of the person or thing spoken of; as, *He* writes, *they* write. § 6, and § 15. Obs. 1.

§ 27. CONJUGATION.

198. The conjugation of a verb, is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *moods*, *tenses*, *numbers* and *persons*.

199. In the active voice, most verbs have two forms; the *Common*, and the *Progressive*. See App. XIX, I. 1.

1. The *Common* form expresses the simple existence of the fact; as, "*He speaks*," "*She writes*," "*They talk*."

2. The *Progressive* form represents an action as begun, and in progress, but not completed. It is formed by annexing the present participle to the verb "*to be*," through all its moods and tenses; as, "*I am writing*," &c. (§ 30).

200. Besides these, in the present and the past indicative, there is a third form, called the *Emphatic*, used to express a fact with emphasis or force. It is formed by prefixing to the verb the auxiliary *do*, in the present tense, and *did*, in the past; as, "*I do write*"—" *I did write*." The other tenses, and also the progressive form and passive voice, are rendered emphatic, by placing emphasis on the *auxiliary*; as, "*I have written*"—" *I am writing*"—" *The letter is written*."

201. To these may be added, the *solemn* form of the third person singular, present indicative, ending in *th*, or *eth*, instead of the *common*, ending in *s* or *es*. Thus—solemn form, *loveth*, *hath loved*; common, *loves*, *has loved*. *Need* is also used for *needs*.

202. The tenses of the verb, inflected without an auxiliary, are called *SIMPLE* tenses; those inflected with an auxiliary are called *COMPOUND* tenses.

203. The principal parts of the verb are the *Present indicative*, the *Past indicative*, and the *Past participle*. In parsing, the mentioning of these parts is called *conjugating the verb*. Thus:—

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
<i>Regular</i> (157),	Love, -	loved,	loved.
<i>Irregular</i> (158),	Write,	wrote,	written.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB "TO LOVE."

204. The regular transitive verb "*To love*," is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, love.

Past, loved.

Past participle, loved

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.*

Singular.

Plural.

1. I love.

1. We love.

2. Thou lovest.

2. You love.*

3. He loves (*or loveth*).

3. They love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE (PERFECT).

Sign, *have*.

1. I have loved.

1. We have loved.

2. Thou hast loved.

2. You have loved.

3. He has *or hath* loved.

3. They have loved.

PAST TENSE.

1. I loved.

1. We loved.

2. Thou lovedst.

2. You loved.

3. He loved.

3. They loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE (PLUPERFECT).

Sign, *had*.

1. I had loved.

1. We had loved.

2. Thou hadst loved.

2. You had loved.

3. He had loved.

3. They had loved.

* EMPHATIC FORMS.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I do love.

1. We do love.

2. Thou dost love.

2. You do love.

3. He does *or doth* love

3. They do love.

PAST TENSE.

1. I did love.

1. We did love

2. Thou didst love.

2. You did love.

3 He did love.

3 They did love

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, *shall, will*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I shall love. | 1. We shall love. |
| 2. Thou shalt love. | 2. You shall love. |
| 3. He shall love. | 3. They shall love. |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *shall have, will have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I shall have loved. | 1. We shall have loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt have loved. | 2. You shall have loved. |
| 3. He shall have loved. | 3. They shall have loved. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may, can, must*.—Inflect with each.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I may love. | 1. We may love. |
| 2. Thou mayst love. | 2. You may love. |
| 3. He may love. | 3. They may love. |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE (PERFECT).

Signs, *may have, can have, * must have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I may have loved. | 1. We may have loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst have loved. | 2. You may have loved. |
| 3. He may have loved. | 3. They may have loved. |

PAST TENSE.

Signs, *might, could, would, should*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I might love. | 1. We might love. |
| 2. Thou mightst love. | 2. You might love. |
| 3. He might love. | 3. They might love. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE (PLUPERFECT).

Signs, *might have, could have, would have, should have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I might have loved. | 1. We might have loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst have loved. | 2. You might have loved. |
| 3. He might have loved. | 3. They might have loved. |

**Can have* is not used in affirmative sentences.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE (*Subjunctive form*)

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plura'</i>
1. <i>If I love.</i>	1. <i>If we love.</i>
2. <i>If thou love.</i>	2. <i>If you love.</i>
3. <i>If he love.</i>	3. <i>If they love.</i>

PRESENT TENSE (*Indicative form*).

1. <i>If I love.</i>	1. <i>If we love.</i>
2. <i>If thou lovest.</i>	2. <i>If you love.</i>
3. <i>If he loves (or loveth).</i>	3. <i>If they love.</i>

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE (PERFECT).

1. <i>If I have loved.</i>	1. <i>If we have loved.</i>
2. <i>If thou hast loved.</i>	2. <i>If you have loved.</i>
3. <i>If he has or hath loved.</i>	3. <i>If they have loved.</i>

PAST TENSE.

1. <i>If I loved.</i>	1. <i>If we loved.</i>
2. <i>If thou lovedst.</i>	2. <i>If you loved.</i>
3. <i>If he loved.</i>	3. <i>If they loved.</i>

PAST-PERFECT TENSE (PLUPERFECT).

1. <i>If I had loved.</i>	1. <i>If we had loved.</i>
2. <i>If thou hadst loved.</i>	2. <i>If you had loved.</i>
3. <i>If he had loved.</i>	3. <i>If they had loved.</i>

FUTURE TENSE.

1. <i>If I shall or will love.</i>	1. <i>If we shall or will love.</i>
2. <i>If thou shalt or wilt love.</i>	2. <i>If you shall or will love.</i>
3. <i>If he shall or will love.</i>	3. <i>If they shall or will love.</i>

*The Present subjunctive is here given in two forms: 1st, in the *subjunctive* or *elliptical form*, used when both contingency and futurity are implied; and 2d, the *indicative form*, used when contingency only, and not futurity is implied. In parsing, the latter should be called the "indicative used subjunctively," being the indicative mood in form, and rendered subjunctive only by the conjunction prefixed. This is true also of the other tenses in this mood.

The emphatic forms of the present are, *If I do love, if thou do love, if he do love, etc.*; of the past, *If I did love, if thou didst love, etc.* as in the indicative

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

1. *If I shall or will have loved.* 1. *If we shall or will have loved.*
 2. *If thou shalt or wilt have loved.* 2. *If you shall or will have loved*
 3. *If he shall or will have loved.* 3. *If they shall or will have loved*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Singular.**Plural.**Common form.* 2. Love, or love thou. 2. Love, or love ye or you*Emphatic form.* 2. Do thou love. 2. Do ye or you love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, to love.

PERFECT, to have loved

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, loving. PAST, loved. PERFECT, having loved.

EXERCISE.

Inflect the following irregular verbs in the same manner as the verb "*to love*":

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Go	went	gone
Write	wrote	written
Do	did	done
Fall	fell	fallen
Give	gave	given
Have	had	had

205. **PARSING.**—A verb is parsed by stating its *class* (transitive or intransitive), its *form* (regular or irregular), *conjugating* it if irregular* (§ 32), and stating its tense, mood, voice, person, and number, and also the subject of which it affirms; thus, "*He loves study.* *Loves* is a verb transitive, found in the present indicative active, third person singular, and affirms of its subject *He*.†

*In parsing, it will save time to omit conjugating the verb when it is regular; and it is unnecessary, because its being announced to be regular sufficiently ascertains its principal parts. All irregular verbs should be conjugated as in § 32. Every teacher, however, will adopt the course which he prefers.

† In parsing, it is important and will save much time to state every thing required in as few words as possible, to observe always the same order, and without waiting to have every thing drawn out by questions.

EXERCISES ON THE TENSES OF VERBS, AND CASES OF NOUNS
AND PRONOUNS.

Tell the tense, mood, person, and number of—They love; learn you; they had walked; he shall have learned; thou hadst painted; we can gain; to form; to have joined; obeys; lovedst; teaches; we could stand; she has learned; we shall have gone; they will have come; I do love; thou didst love; they did love.

Parse the following words and sentences:*—We love him; I love you; James loves me; it amuses him; we shall conduct them; they will divide the spoil; soldiers should defend their country; friends invite friends; she can read her lesson; she may play a tune; you might please her; thou mayst ask him; he may have betrayed us; we might have diverted the children; Tom can deliver the message.

I love; to love; love; reprove thou; has loved; we tied the knot; if we love; if thou love; they could have commanded armies; to love; to baptize; to have loved; loved; loving; to survey; having surveyed; write a letter; read your lesson; thou hast obeyed my voice; honour thy father; his mother teaches him; love; loved

NOMINATIVE AND OBJECTIVE.

206. The teacher, if he chooses, may now acquaint the learner with the difference between the Nominative and Objective.

* *QUESTIONS which may be put to the pupils*:—How do you know that love is plural? *Ans.* Because *we*, its nominative, is plural. How do you know that love is the first person? *Ans.* Because *we* is a pronoun of the first person, and the verb is always of the same number and person with the noun or pronoun before it.

Many of the phrases in this page may be converted into exercises of a different kind; thus, the meaning of the sentence, *We love him*, may be expressed by the passive voice; as, *He is loved by us*. It may also be turned into a question, or made a negative; as, *Do we love him?* &c. *We do not love him*

When the verb is active, the Nominative *acts*; the Objective is *acted upon*; as, *He eats apples*.

The Nominative commonly comes *before* the verb; the Objective, *after* it; as, *We saw them*. In asking questions, the nominative follows the verb in the simple tenses, and the auxiliary in the compound tenses; as, *Lovest thou me? did he come? may we go? is it finished?*

§ 28. NEGATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

207. The verb is made to deny, by placing the word *not* after the simple form; as, "Thou lovest *not*;" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound form; as, "I do *not* love." When two auxiliaries are used, it is placed between them; as, "I would *not* have loved."

208. In the infinitive and participles, the negative is put first; as, "*Not* to love"—"*Not* loving."

209. The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and past tenses, the compound or emphatic form is more common. The following synopsis will show the manner of using the negative :

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	1. I do not love.	2. Thou dost not love, etc.
<i>Pres.-perf.</i>	1. I have not loved.	2. Thou hast not loved, etc.
<i>Past.</i>	1. I did not love.	2. Thou didst not love, etc.
<i>Past-perf.</i>	1. I had not loved.	2. Thou hadst not loved, etc.
<i>Future.</i>	1. I will not love.	2. Thou wilt not love, etc.
<i>Fut.-perf.</i>	1. I shall not have loved.	2. Thou shalt not have loved, etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	1. I can not love.	2. Thou canst not love, etc.
<i>Pres.-perf.</i>	1. I may not have loved.	2. Thou mayst not have loved, etc.
<i>Past.</i>	1. I might not love.	2. Thou mightst not love, etc.
<i>Past-perf.</i>	1. I might not have loved.	2. Thou mightst not have loved, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. 1. *If I do not love.* 2. *If thou do not love, etc.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

2. *Love not, or do not thou love.* 2. *Love not, or do not ye love.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Not to love.

Perfect. Not to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Not loving.

Past. Not loved.

Perfect. Not having loved.

Interrogative form of the Verb.

210. The verb is made to ask a question by placing the nominative, or subject, after the simple form; as, "Lovest thou?" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound forms; as, "Do I love?" When there are two auxiliaries, the nominative is placed between them: as, "Shall I have loved?"

211. The subjunctive, imperative, infinitive, and participles, can not have the interrogative form.

212. The simple form of the verb is seldom used interrogatively. The following synopsis will show how the verb is put into the interrogative form:

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. 1. Do I love?

2. Dost thou love? etc.

Pres.-perf. 1. Have I loved?

2. Hast thou loved? etc.

Past. 1. Did I love?

2. Didst thou love? etc.

Past -perf. 1. Had I loved?

2. Hadst thou loved? etc.

Future. 1. Shall I love?

2. Wilt thou love? etc.

Fut.-perf. 1. Shall I have loved? 2. Wilt thou have loved? etc

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present. 1. May I love?

2. Canst thou love? etc.

Pres.-perf. 1. May I have loved?

2. Canst thou have loved? etc.

Past. 1. Might I love?

2. Couldst thou love? etc.

Past -perf. 1. Might I have loved?

2. Couldst thou have loved? etc.

213. Interrogative sentences are made negative by placing the negative either before or after the nominative; as, "Do I not love?" or, "Do not I love?"

§ 29. CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO BE."

214. The intransitive irregular verb TO BE, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, am.

Past, was. Past participle, been

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am.
2. Thou art.
3. He is.

Plural.

1. We are.
2. You are.
3. They are.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE (PERFECT).

Sign, have.

1. I have been.
2. Thou hast been.
3. He has been.

1. We have been.
2. You have been.
3. They have been

PAST TENSE.

1. I was.
2. Thou wast.
3. He was.

1. We were.
2. You were.
3. They were.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE (PLUPERFECT).

Sign, had.

1. I had been.
2. Thou hadst been.
3. He had been.

1. We had been.
2. You had been.
3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, shall, will.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall be.
2. Thou shalt be.
3. He shall be.

1. We shall be.
2. You shall be.
3. They shall be

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, shall have, will have.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been. | 1. We shall have been. |
| 2. Thou shalt have been. | 2. You shall have been. |
| 3. He shall have been. | 3. They shall have been. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, may, can, must.—Inflect with each.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I may be. | 1. We may be. |
| 2. Thou mayst be. | 2. You may be. |
| 3. He may be. | 3. They may be. |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE (PERFECT).

Signs, may have, can have, or must have.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have been. | 1. We may have been. |
| 2. Thou mayst have been. | 2. You may have been. |
| 3. He may have been. | 3. They may have been. |

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I might be. | 1. We might be. |
| 2. Thou mightst be. | 2. You might be. |
| 3. He might be. | 3. They might be. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE (PLUPERFECT).

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have been. | 1. We might have been. |
| 2. Thou mightst have been. | 2. You might have been. |
| 3. He might have been. | 3. They might have been. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. <i>If</i> I be. | 1. <i>If</i> we be. |
| 2. <i>If</i> thou be. | 2. <i>If</i> you be. |
| 3. <i>If</i> he be. | 3. <i>If</i> they be. |

PAST TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. <i>If I were.</i> | 1. <i>If we were.</i> |
| 2. <i>If thou wert or were.</i> | 2. <i>If you were.</i> |
| 3. <i>If he were.</i> | 3. <i>If they were.</i> |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Singular.**Plural.*

2. Be, or be thou.

2. Be, or be ye or you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

PERFECT TENSE.

To be.

To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Being.

PAST, Been.

PERFECT, Having been

EXERCISES ON THE VERB "TO BE."

Parse the words in the following exercises.

Am, is, art, wast, I was, they were, we are, hast been, has been, we have been, hadst been, he had been, you have been, she has been, we were, they had been.

I shall be, shalt be, we will be, thou wilt be, they shall be, it will be, thou wilt have been, we have been, they will have been, we shall have been, am, it is.

I can be, mayst be, canst be, she may be, you may be, ne must be, they should be, mightst be, he would be, it could be, wouldst be, you could be, he may have been.

We may have been, mayst have been, they may have been, I might have been, you should have been, wouldst have been; (if) thou be, we be, he be, thou wert, we were, I be.

*The indicative form in all the tenses is the same as the indicative with a conjunction prefixed; thus, *If I am, If I have been, If I was, If I had been, If I shall or will be, If I shall have been.*

Be thou, be, to be, being, to have been, if I be, be ye, been, be, having been, if we be, if they be, to be.

Snow is white; he was a good man; we have been younger; she has been happy; it had been late; we are old; you will be wise; it will be time; if they be thine; be cautious; be heedful youth; we may be rich; they should be virtuous; thou mightst be wiser; they must have been excellent scholars; they might have been powerful.

§ 30. PROGRESSIVE FORM.

215. The *Progressive* form of the verb (199, 2) is inflected by prefixing the verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses, to the present participle; thus,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	1. I am writing.	2. Thou art writing, etc.
<i>Pres.-perf.</i>	1. I have been writing.	2. Thou hast been writing, etc.
<i>Past.</i>	1. I was writing.	2. Thou wast writing, etc.
<i>Past-perf.</i>	1. I had been writing.	2. Thou hadst been writing, etc.
<i>Future.</i>	1. I shall be writing.	2. Thou shalt be writing, etc.
<i>Fut.-perf.</i>	1. I shall or will have been writing.	2. Thou shalt or wilt have been writing, etc.

NOTE. In this manner, go through the other moods and tenses as in § 29.

§ 31. PASSIVE VOICE.

216. The *Passive* voice is inflected by adding the past participle to the auxiliary verb *to be* (214), through all its moods and tenses; thus,

Pres. Am loved. *Past.* Was loved. *Past Part.* Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am loved.	1. We are loved.
2. Thou art loved.	2. You are loved.
3. He is loved.	3. They are loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE (PERFECT).

Sign, *have*.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have been loved. | 1. We have been loved. |
| 2. Thou hast been loved. | 2. You have been loved. |
| 3. He has been loved. | 3. They have been loved. |

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I was loved. | 1. We were loved. |
| 2. Thou wast loved. | 2. You were loved. |
| 3. He was loved. | 3. They were loved. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE (PLUPERFECT).

Sign, *had*.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I had been loved. | 1. We had been loved. |
| 2. Thou hadst been loved. | 2. You had been loved. |
| 3. He had been loved. | 3. They had been loved. |

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, *shall, will*—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall be loved. | 1. We shall be loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt be loved. | 2. You shall be loved. |
| 3. He shall be loved. | 3. They shall be loved. |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *shall have, will have*—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been loved. | 1. We shall have been loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt have been loved. | 2. You shall have been loved. |
| 3. He shall have been loved. | 3. They shall have been loved. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may, can, must*—Inflect with each.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I may be loved. | 1. We may be loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst be loved. | 2. You may be loved. |
| 3. He may be loved. | 3. They may be loved. |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE (PERFECT).

Signs, *may have, can have, must have*—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been loved. | 1. We may have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst have been loved. | 2. You may have been loved. |
| 3. He may have been loved. | 3. They may have been loved. |

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should—Inflect with *each*.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I might be loved. | 1. We might be loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst be loved. | 2. You might be loved. |
| 3. He might be loved. | 3. They might be loved. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE (PLUPERFECT).

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have—Inflect with *each*.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved. | 1. We might have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst have been loved. | 2. You might have been loved. |
| 3. He might have been loved. | 3. They might have been loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. <i>If</i> I be loved. | 1. <i>If</i> we be loved. |
| 2. <i>If</i> thou be loved. | 2. <i>If</i> you be loved |
| 3. <i>If</i> he be loved. | 3. <i>If</i> they be loved |

PAST TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).*

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. <i>If</i> I were loved. | 1. <i>If</i> we were loved. |
| 2. <i>If</i> thou wert or were loved. | 2. <i>If</i> you were loved. |
| 3. <i>If</i> he were loved. | 3. <i>If</i> they were loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|-------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Be thou loved. | 2. Be ye or you loved. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Present.</i> To be loved. | <i>Perf.</i> To have been loved. |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------|

PARTICIPLES.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| <i>Pres.</i> Being loved. | <i>Past.</i> Loved. |
| <i>Perfect.</i> Having been loved. | |

*The indicative form in all the tenses, is the same as the indicative with a conjunction prefixed; thus, "*If I am loved, If I have been loved, If I was loved, If I had been loved, If I shall or will be loved, If I shall have been loved.*"

EXERCISES ON THE PASSIVE VOICE.

Parse the words in the following exercises :

They are loved; we were loved; thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; he has been loved; you have been loved; I have been loved; thou hadst been loved, we shall be loved; thou wilt be loved; they will be loved; I shall have been loved; you will have been loved.

He can be loved; thou mayst be loved; she must be loved; they might be loved; ye would be loved; they should be loved; I could be loved; thou mayst have been loved; it may have been loved; you might have been loved; if I be loved;* thou wert loved; we be loved; they be loved. Be thou loved; be ye loved, you be loved. To be loved; loved; having been loved; to have been loved; being loved.

Promiscuous Exercises on Verbs, and Cases of Nouns and Pronouns.—Parse each word.

Tie John's shoes; this is Jane's bonnet; ask mamma; he has learned his lesson; she invited him; your father may commend you; he was baptized; the minister baptized him; we should have delivered our message; papa will reprove us; divide the apples; the captain had commanded his soldiers to pursue the enemy; Eliza diverted her brother; a hunter killed a hare; were I loved; were we good, we should be happy; James did write; they are reading; I have been running; I did run; they do come; he might be doing something; they must have been travelling.

*A conjunction is frequently to be understood here.

§ 32. IRREGULAR VERBS.

217. An *IRREGULAR* verb is one that does not form both its *past tense* in the indicative active, and its *past participle* by adding *ed* to the present; as, *Am, was, been.*

218. The following list comprises nearly all the irregular verbs in the language. Those conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly, are marked with an R. Those in *italics* are obsolete, or obsolescent, and now but little used :—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, R.	awaked
Bake	baked	baked, <i>baken</i>
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bore, <i>bars</i>	born
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore, bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bind, <i>un-</i>	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, <i>brake</i>	broken, <i>broke</i>
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build, <i>re-</i>	built, R.	built, R.
Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R.
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught, R.	caught, R.
Chide	chid	chidden, <i>chid</i>
Choose	chose	chosen

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Cleave, <i>to split</i>	cleft, <i>clave</i>	cleft, R., cloven
Cleave, <i>to adhere</i>	cleaved, <i>clavē</i>	cleaved
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R
Come, <i>be-</i>	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, <i>to venture</i>	durst	dared
Dare, <i>to challenge is</i> R.	dared	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt, R.
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do, <i>mis- un-</i>	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt, R.	dreamt, R.
Drink	drank	drank, drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat	ate, eat	eaten
Fall, <i>be-</i>	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get, <i>be- for-</i>	got, gat	gotten, got
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird, <i>be- en-</i>	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give, <i>for- mis-</i>	gave	given
Go, <i>under-</i>	went	gone
Grave, <i>en- R.</i>	graved	graven, graved

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung	hung*
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R.	hoven, R.
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold, <i>be- with-</i>	held	held, <i>holden</i>
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt R.	knelt, R.
Knit	knit R.	knit, knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade, <i>to load†</i>	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead, <i>mis-</i>	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, <i>to recline</i>	lay	lain, <i>lien</i>
Light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Pay, <i>re-</i>	paid	paid
Pen, <i>to enclose</i>	pent, R.	pent, R
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.
Read	read†	read†
Rend	rent	rent

**Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular; as, "The robber was *hanged*, but the gown was *hung* up."

†*Read*, to dip, is regular.

‡Pronounced *red*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Rid	rid	rid
Ride,	rode, <i>rid</i>	ridden, <i>rid</i>
Ring	rang, rung	rung
Rise, <i>a-</i>	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven, R.
Rot	rotted	rotten, R.
Run	ran, <i>run</i>	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	seethed, <i>sod</i>	seethed, <i>sodden</i>
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set, <i>be-</i>	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape, <i>mis-</i>	shaped	shapen, R.
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.
Shear	sheared	shorn, R.
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, R.
Shrink	shrank, <i>shrank</i>	shrank
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang, sung	sung
Sink	sunk, <i>sank</i>	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, <i>slid</i>
Sling	slung, <i>slang</i>	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit or <i>slitted</i>
Smit	smote	smitten
Sow, <i>to scatter</i>	sowed	sown, R.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Speak, <i>be-</i>	spoke, <i>spake</i>	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt, R.	spelt, R
Spend, <i>mis-</i>	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R
Spin	spun, <i>span</i>	spun
Spit, <i>be-</i>	spit, <i>spat</i>	spit
Split	split	split
Spread, <i>be-</i>	spread	spread
Spring	sprang, <i>sprung</i>	sprung
Stand, <i>with-</i> etc.	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stride, <i>be-</i>	strode, <i>strid</i>	stridden, <i>strid</i>
Strike	struck	struck, <i>stricken</i>
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew,* <i>be-</i>	strewed	strewed
Strow, <i>be-</i>	strowed	strowed, <i>strown</i>
Swear	swore, <i>sware</i>	sworn
Sweat	sweat, R.	sweat, R.
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam or <i>swum</i>	swum
Swing	swang	swung
Take, <i>be- mis- re-</i>	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore, <i>tare</i>	torn
Tell	told	told
Think, <i>be-</i>	thought	thought
Thrive	thrived, <i>throve</i>	thriven, R.
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trod, <i>trod</i>

**Strew* and *shew* are now giving way to *strow* and *show*, as they are pronounced.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participles.</i>
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, R.	wet, R.
Whet	whet, R	whet, R.
Win	won	won
Wind	wound, R.	wound
Work	wrought, R.	wrought, worked
Wring	wrung, R.	wrung
Write	wrote	written

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

219. DEFECTIVE verbs are those in which some of the parts are wanting. They are irregular, and chiefly auxiliary : these are,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past.</i>
Can	could	Shall	should
May	might	Will	would
Must	—	Wis	wist
Ought	—	Wit or }	wot
Quoth	quoth	Wot }	

Beware, used only in the imperative and infinitive.

220. *Ought*, originally the past tense of *owe*, is now used to signify present duty; and *must*, to denote present obligation or necessity. When they refer to past time, a change is made in the infinitive with which they are joined; thus, *Present*, "These things ye ought to do; *Past*, "These things ye ought to have done."

221. *Will*, as an auxiliary, has *wilt*, and *shall* has *shalt*, in the second person singular. They are both without inflection in the third person singular. *Will*, as a principal verb, is regular.

222. *Wis*, *wist*, which signifies *to know*, *to imagine*, is now obsolete. *Wit*, of the same meaning and origin, is now used only in the infinitive, in the phrase "*to wit*," that is, *namely*

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

223. IMPERSONAL verbs are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are always in the third person singular, and in English are preceded by the pronoun *it*; as, "*It rains*;" "*It hails*;" "*It behooves*," &c.

224. To this class of words belong the expressions, *methinks*, *methought*; *meseems*, *meseemed*; sometimes used for "*It seems to me*," "*It appears to me*," etc.

225. The pronoun *it* preceding the impersonal verb as its subject, is the substitute of some unknown and general, or well-known cause, the action of which is expressed by the verb, but which can not, or need not, itself be named.

EXERCISES ON THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

Name the Past tense and Past participle of—Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, be-reave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel, forsake, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, slay, slide, smite, speak, stand, tell, win, write, weave, etc.

§ 33. ADVERBS.

226. An ADVERB is a word joined to a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb*, to modify it, or to denote some circumstance respecting it; as, "*Ann speaks distinctly*; she is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very correctly*."

227. On the same principle that an adverb modifies another adverb, it sometimes also modifies an adjunct, a phrase, or a sentence; as, "*I met your brother FAR from home*;" "*He will be here SOON after mid-day*;" "*We shall go IMMEDIATELY after the mail arrives*."

228. The adverbs *chiefly*, *particularly*, *especially*, *entirely*, *altogether*, *solely*, *only*, *merely*, *partly*, *also*, *likewise*, *too*, etc. sometimes modify nouns and pronouns; as, "*I only* am escaped;" "*The women also* were there."

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

229. Adverbs have been divided into various classes, according to their signification. The chief of these are the following :

1. Adverbs of *Manner* ; as, justly, bravely, softly, &c.
2. Of *Place* ; as, here, there, where ; hither, thence, &c.
3. Of *Time* ; as, now, then, when, soon, often, never, &c.
4. Of *Direction* ; as, upward, downward, forward, &c.
5. Of *Affirmation* ; as, yes, verily, certainly, &c.
6. Of *Negation* ; as, nay, no, not, nowise, &c.
7. Of *Uncertainty* ; as, perhaps, peradventure, &c.
8. Of *Interrogation* ; as, how ? why ? when ? where ? &c.
9. Of *Comparison* ; as, more, most, less, as, so, thus, &c.
10. Of *Quantity* ; as, much, some, little, enough, &c.
11. Of *Order* ; as, first, secondly, thirdly, next, &c.
12. *Conjunctive adverbs* which stand for two adjuncts, one of which contains a relative pronoun, and the other its antecedent ; as, *when* = *at the time at which* ; *how* = *the manner in which*, &c. They are *how, when, where, while, whither, whence*.

230. § 34. OBSERVATIONS ON ADVERBS.

1. The chief use of adverbs is to shorten discourse, by expressing in one word what would otherwise require two or more ; as, *here*, for " in this place ;" *nobly*, for " in a noble manner," etc. Phrases for which an adverb is an equivalent are called *adjuncts*.

2. Adverbs of quality, and a few others, admit of comparison like adjectives ; as, *soon, sooner, soonest ; nobly, more nobly, most nobly*. A few are compared irregularly ; as, *well, better, best, badly, or ill, worse, worst*.

3. Some words become adverbs by prefixing *a*, which signifies *at*, or *on* ; as, *abed, ashore, afloat, aground, apart*, etc.

4. In comparisons, the antecedents *as* and *so* are usually reckoned adverbs, because they modify an adjective or another

adverb; the corresponding *as*—and *so* are adverbs also, as they may be resolved into an adjunct; thus, “It is *as* high *as* Heaven;” i. e. high *in the degree IN WHICH* Heaven is high.

5. The compounds of *here*, *there*, *where*; and *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, are all adverbs. *Therefore* and *wherefore*, sometimes called conjunctions, are properly adverbs also; *therefore* being equivalent to *for this reason*, and *wherefore* equivalent to *for which reason*; as an interrogative = *for what reason?*

6. Many words are used sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as other parts of speech; thus,

Much is used, 1. As an *adverb*; as, It is *much* better to give than to receive.

————— 2. As an *adjective*; as, In *much* wisdom is *much* grief.

————— 3. As a *noun*; as, where *much* is given, *much* is required.

Yesterday is used, 1. As an *adverb*; as, He came *yesterday*.

————— 2. As a *noun*; as, *Yesterday* is past.

Before is used, 1. As an *adverb*; as, He came *before* the door was opened.

————— 2. As a *preposition*; as, He stood *before* the door.

7. Circumstances of time, place, manner, etc. are often expressed by two or more words constituting an *adverbial phrase*; as, in short, in fine, in general, at most, at least, at length, not at all, by no means, in vain, in order, long ago, by and bye, to and fro, etc., which, taken together, may be parsed as adverbs, or by supplying the ellipsis; thus, *in a short space*; *in a general way*, etc.

8. *There*, commonly used as an adverb of place, is often used as an *introductory expletive* to the verbs *to be*, *to come*, *to appear*, and some others, when the subject, in declaratory sentences, follows the verb; as, “There is no doubt of the fact;” “There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin;” “There appears to be a mistake somewhere.” Sometimes, when the subject goes before, it is placed between the subject and the verb; as, “A mistake there is.” In all such cases, *there* is a mere expletive. It adds nothing to the sense, but still it enables to vary the form of expression, and to soften the abruptness which would otherwise

exist. This will appear by omitting it in any of the above examples.

281. **PARSING.**—An adverb is parsed by stating what part of speech—the class to which it belongs—the word which it modifies—its derivation and comparison, if derived and compared—thus, “He speaks *fluently*.” *Fluently*, an adverb of manner, and modifies “*speaks* ;” derived from *fluent*, and compared *more fluently*, *most fluently*.

EXERCISES ON ADVERBS, IRREGULAR VERBS, etc.

Parse the words in the following exercises.

Peter wept bitterly. He is here now. She went away yesterday. They came to-day. They will perhaps buy some to-morrow. Ye shall know hereafter. She sung sweetly. Cats soon learn to catch mice. Mary rose up hastily. They that have enough may sleep soundly. Cain wickedly slew his brother. I saw him long ago. He is a very good man. Sooner or later all must die. You read too little. They talk too much. James acted wisely. How many lines can you repeat? You ran hastily. He speaks fluently. Then were they glad. He fell fast asleep. She should not hold her head down. The ship was driven ashore. No, indeed. They are all alike. Let him that is athirst drink freely. The oftener you read with attention, the more you will improve.

§ 35. PREPOSITIONS.

232. A **PREPOSITION** is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun following it, and some other word in the sentence ; as, *Before honor is humility*. The love of money is the root of all evil. Come to me.

233. **NOTE.** Of the words related, that before the preposition is called the *antecedent* term, and that after it, the *subsequent* term.

224. Words of this class are called *prepositions*, because they are usually *placed before* the nouns or pronouns to which they refer. The principal, are contained in the following

235. LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

To be got accurately by heart.

About	Below	From	Through
Above	Beneath	In	Throughout
Across	Beside	Into	Till, until
After	Besides	Notwithstanding	To
Against	Between	Of	Touching
Along	Betwixt	Off	Toward }
Amid }	Beyond	On	Towards }
Amidst }	But	Over	Under
Among }	By	Out of	Underneath
Amongst }	Concerning	Past	Unto
Around	Down	Regarding	Up
At	During	Respecting	Upon
Athwart	Except	Round	With
Before	Excepting	Save	Within
Behind	For	Since	Without

236. OBSERVATIONS ON PREPOSITIONS.

1. Every preposition requires an objective case after it. When a preposition has not a subsequent term or object, it becomes an *adverb*; as, He rides *about*. But in such phrases as, cast up, hold out, fall on, the words *up*, *out*, *on*, must be considered each as a part of the verb, rather than as a preposition or an adverb.

2. Certain words are used sometimes as prepositions, and sometimes as adverbs; as, *till*, *until*, *after*, *before*, etc.

3. Such words as *near*, *nigh*, *like*, etc., sometimes ranked as prepositions, are more properly adjectives or adverbs, and the objective case after them governed by *to* understood; as, Near (*to*) the house.

4. *Inseparable prepositions* are certain particles never found by

themselves, but always in composition with another word. Those purely English are *a, be, fore, mis, un*.

237. **PARSING.** A preposition is parsed by stating what part of speech, and between what words it shows the relation; thus, "The waters of Jordan." *Of* is a preposition, and shows the relation between *Jordan* the antecedent, and *waters* the subsequent term.

EXERCISES CONTAINING PREPOSITIONS.

Parse the words in the following exercises.

He went to town. His father resides in the country. He gave part of his dinner to a poor man in the street. They divided the inheritance among them. All rivers flow into the ocean. He was travelling towards Rome when they met him at Milan, without a single attendant. The coach was upset between Bristol and London on Wednesday last.

§ 36. INTERJECTIONS.

238. An **INTERJECTION** is a word used in exclamations to express an emotion of the mind; as, "*Oh!* what a sight is here!" "*Well done!*"

NOTE. An interjection has no grammatical connection with the other words in a sentence.

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! halloo! hum! hush! huzza! hist! hey-dey! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! &c.

239. OBSERVATIONS ON INTERJECTIONS.

1. Many words denominated interjections, are in fact nouns or verbs, employed in the rapidity of thought and expression occasioned by strong emotion, to denote what would otherwise require more words to express, as *Adieu!* for "I commend you to

God;" *Strange!* for "that is strange;" *Welcome!* for "you are welcome;" and hence any word or phrase may become an interjection, or be used as such, when it is expressed with emotion, and in an unconnected manner; as, *What! Ungrateful creature! Shocking!*

2. *O* is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or pronoun, in a direct address; as, "*O* virtue! How amiable thou art." *Oh!* is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "*Oh!* what a sight is here."

240. PARSING.—An *interjection* is parsed by stating the part of speech, why, and the emotion expressed; as, "*Oh!* what a sight is here!" *Oh!*—an interjection, because used as an exclamation, and expresses an emotion of pain.

§ 37. CONJUNCTIONS.

241. A **CONJUNCTION** is a word which connects words or sentences; as, "You *and* I must study; *but* he may go *and* play."

242. Conjunctions are divided into two classes; *Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

243. *Copulative* Conjunctions connect things that are to be considered *together*. They are *both, and, as, because, for, if, since, that*.

244. *Disjunctive* Conjunctions connect things that are to be considered *separately*. The principal are *Either, or, neither, nor, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, notwithstanding, save, provided, whereas*.

245. *And* is the principal copulative, and denotes *addition*. It has frequently *both* as a related antecedent conjunction in the preceding member. The other copulatives denote *condition, supposition, etc.*

246. *Or* and *nor* are the principal disjunctive conjunctions, and sometimes have, for their related antecedent conjunctions, *either* and *neither* respectively. The other disjunctives denote *concession, doubt, opposition, etc.*

247. It will be seen from the list above that the same word varies in its character according to its application: e. g. *both*, *either*, *neither*, are sometimes adjective pronouns and sometimes conjunctions; *that* is sometimes an adjective pronoun, sometimes a relative pronoun (§, 18, 141 obs. 2), as well as a conjunction; *for*, *except*, are sometimes prepositions; *since* and *but* are sometimes conjunctions, sometimes prepositions, and sometimes adverbs; thus, "*since* (conj.) we must part, let us do it peaceably;" "*I* have not seen him *since* (prep.) that time;" "*Our* friendship commenced long *since*" (adv.); "*He* is poor, *but* honest" (conj.); "*All but* one" (prep.); "*He* has *but* just enough" (adv.).

248. PARSING. A conjunction is parsed by stating the part of speech, its class, and the words or sentences which it connects; as, "*He and I* must go, *but* you may stay. *And*—a copulative conjunction, connecting the words *He* and *I*; *but*—a disjunctive conjunction, connecting the sentences, "*He and I* must go," and "*you* may stay."

§ 38. ETYMOLOGICAL PARSING.

249. ETYMOLOGICAL PARSING consists in stating the part of speech to which each word belongs, with its accidents or grammatical properties.

250. Accuracy and expertness in this exercise are an important acquisition, and can not be fully acquired without a knowledge of the rules of syntax. At the same time, in order to study the rules of syntax with advantage, and especially to be able readily to correct the exercises in false syntax, under each rule, considerable proficiency in parsing is necessary. The pupil must be able at once to distinguish the different parts of speech from each other, and to tell the different cases, moods, tenses, etc. in which a word is found, and to change it readily into any other that may be required.

In proceeding to parse a sentence, it is necessary for the pupil in the first place to *understand it*. When he understands a sentence, and also the definition of the different parts of speech given in the grammar, he will not find much difficulty in ascertaining to which of them each word belongs; i. e. which of the words are "names of things," or *nouns*; which "express the quality of things," or, "affirm any thing concerning them," that is to say,

which words are *adjectives*, and which are *verbs*. This method will exercise the discriminating powers of the pupil better, engage his attention much more, and on trial be found much more easy and certain, than that of consulting his dictionary on every occasion; a plan always laborious, often unsatisfactory, and which, instead of leading him to exercise his own powers, and depend on his own resources, will lead him to habits of slavish dependence on the authority of others.

251. The following *General principles* should be remembered and steadily kept in view in parsing every sentence, viz:

1. Every adjective qualifies or limits a noun or pronoun expressed or understood.

2. The subject of a finite verb, i. e. the person or thing spoken of, is always in the nominative, and is said to be the "nominative to the verb." *

3. Every noun or pronoun in the nominative case (except the nominative independent, § 80, and the predicate-nominative, § 61), is the subject of a verb, expressed or understood, i. e. it is that of which the verb affirms.

4. Every verb in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood, has a nominative or subject expressed or understood, i. e. it has something of which it affirms.

5. Every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition, governs a noun or pronoun in the objective case; and every objective case is governed by a transitive active verb, or preposition.

NOTE.—Instead of a noun or pronoun, the object of a transitive active verb is sometimes an infinitive mood or substantive clause. (286.)

6. Every verb in the infinitive mood is governed by a verb, adjective, or noun; and sometimes it stands after the conjunction *than* or *as*. See § 67.

252. § 39. SPECIMENS OF PARSING.*

"Truth and candor possess a powerful charm."

Previous to parsing this sentence, it may be analyzed to the young pupil by such questions as the following, viz: What is spoken of in this sentence? Truth and candor What is said of them? They possess some thing. What do they possess? A charm. What sort of charm do they possess? A powerful charm. The sentence being understood, may be parsed briefly thus:

"Truth," A noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, and, with *candor*, the subject of *possess*.

"And," A copulative conjunction, connecting "truth" with "candor."

"Candor," A noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, and, with *truth*, the subject of *possess*.

"Possess," A verb transitive, in the present indicative active, third person plural, and affirms of *truth* and *candor*.

"A," The indefinite article, belongs to *charm*, and shews it is used indefinitely.

"Powerful," an adjective, positive degree, qualifying "*charm*," compared by *more* and *most*; as, *more powerful*, *most powerful*.

"Charm," a noun, neuter, in the objective singular, the object of *possess*.

NOTE.—It will also be a profitable exercise to *require a reason* for every thing stated in parsing a word, as for example, Why do you say that "Truth" is a noun? is neuter? singular? the nominative? To which questions it may be answered, Because it is the *name* of a thing—because it is without sex—denotes but *one*, and (together with *candor*) is the *subject* or nominative of the verb "*possess*;" or is the thing spoken of (See note p.17). This exercise should be continued till the pupil is able to answer all such questions on any of the parts of speech promptly and intelligently.

*In parsing, the pupil should be required to state every thing belonging to the etymology of each word *in as few words as possible*, and without waiting to have every thing drawn from him by questions from his teacher; this will save much time and unnecessary labor. It will also contribute much to order and precision, to have every thing respecting each part of speech expressed always *in the same order* and *in the same language*. These specimens are given as an example.

All the parts of speech are contained in the following stanza.

O how stupendous was the power
That raised me with a word ;
And every day, and every hour,
I lean upon the Lord.

O..... Interjection, expressing admiration.

how..... An adverb of manner, modifying *stupendous*.

stupendous, An adjective, positive degree, qualifying *power*, compared by *more* and *most*.

was..... A verb intransitive, irregular, *am*, *was*, *been*, in the past indicative active, and affirms of *power*.

the..... The definite article belonging to *power*, shewing it to be limited.

power..... A noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, subject of *was*.

that..... A relative pronoun used for *which*, in nominative singular, subject of *raised*, and relates to *power* its antecedent.

raised..... A verb transitive, in the past indicative active, third pers. singular, affirms of *that* its subject, for *power*.

me..... The first personal pronoun masculine or feminine in the objective singular, object of *raised*.

with..... A preposition, shewing the relation between *word* its subsequent, and *raised* its antecedent term.

a..... The indefinite article, belongs to *word*, and shews it is not limited.

word . . . A noun, neuter, in the obj. singular, object of *with*.

and..... A copulative conjunction, connecting the following with the preceding sentence.

every..... A distributive adjective pronoun, qualifying *day*.

day..... A noun, neuter, in the objective singular, *restrictive* (§ 50 Sub - Rule).

and..... A copulative conjunction, connecting *day* and *hour*.

every..... A distributive adjective pronoun, qualifying *hour*.

hour..... A noun, neuter, in the objective singular, same as *day*.

- I**..... The first personal pronoun, masculine or feminine, nominative singular, subject of *lean*.
- lean**..... A verb intransitive, in the present indicative active first person singular, and affirms of *I*.
- upon** A preposition, showing the relation between *Lord*, its subsequent, and *lean*, its antecedent term.
- the**..... The definite article, belonging to *Lord*, and shewing it to be limited.
- Lord**..... A noun, masculine, in the objective singular, object of *upon*.

253. § 40. EXERCISES IN PARSING.*

RULE 1. *Two or more adjectives in succession, either with or without a conjunction, qualify the same word; as,*

A wise and faithful servant will always study his master's interest. A dismal, dense, and portentous cloud overhangs the city. A steady, sweet, and cheerful temper affords great delight to its possessor. He has bought a fine new coat. A sober and virtuous course of conduct generally leads to happiness. Virtuous youth brings forth accomplished and flourishing manhood. She had a regular and polite education.

RULE 2. *When an adjective precedes two nouns, it generally qualifies them both; as,*

They waited for a fit time and place. I am delighted with the sight of green woods and fields. He displayed great prudence and moderation. He was a man of great wisdom and moderation. Guard against rash temper and conduct. They shewed sincere respect and esteem for their friends.

RULE 3. *When an adjective comes after the intransitive verb TO BE, TO BECOME, and some others, it qualifies the nominative of that verb; as,*

John is wise. They were temperate. The sky is very clear. These rivers are deep and rapid. The

*The rules in this section are not intended to be committed to memory, but to be used as directions to the beginner in parsing the exercises under them.

apples will soon be ripe. We have been attentive to our lessons. These mountains are very high. The sea is tempestuous. Our friends should be dear to us. His behavior was entirely inconsistent. The Supreme being is wise and good. Their pictures and books are valuable. John's schemes were absurd.

RULE 4. *Whatever words the verb TO BE serves to unite, referring to the same thing; must be of the same case (§ 61); as,*

Alexander is a student. Mary is a beautiful girl. Hope is the balm of life. Content is a great blessing, envy a great curse. Knowledge is power. His meat was locusts and wild honey. He was the life of the company. She will be the delight of her friends. Milton is the prince of English poets. Shakspeare was a man of unbounded genius. Johnson was a powerful writer. Contentment is great gain. He might be a most happy man. I understood it to be him. I supposed it to have been them. They imagined it to be me.

Note. It is necessary to the application of this rule, that the words connected refer to the same thing. This connection is often made by other words than the verb to be. (See 61, Rem. 1.)

RULE 5. *Nouns and pronouns put one after another, and denoting the same object, are said to be in APPPOSITION, and always agree in case; as,*

Alexander the coppersmith was not a friend to the Apostle Paul. Hope, the balm of life, is our greatest friend. Thomson, the author of the Seasons, is a delightful poet. Temperance, the best preserver of health, should be the study of all men. He greatly displeased his friend Cato. We received orders from General Washington, commander-in-chief. Religion and virtue, our best support, and highest honor, confer on the mind principles of noble independence.

Note. In parsing such sentences as the preceding, a relative and a verb may be inserted between the words in apposition: as, Hope *which is* the balm, &c. *Myself, thyself, himself, &c.*, often stand at a considerable distance from the words with which they agree; as,

Thomas despatched the letter himself. They gathered the flowers in the garden themselves. Ann saw the transaction herself, and could not be mistaken.

RULE 6. *Myself, thyself, himself, etc., often form the objectives after transitive verbs, of which the words they represent are the subjects or nominatives. They are, in such cases, called Reflexive pronouns; as,*

I hurt myself. He wronged himself to oblige us. They will support themselves by their industry. She endeavored to shew herself off to advantage. We must confine ourselves more to our studies. They hurt themselves by their great anxiety.

RULE 7. *Adjectives, taken as nouns, and used in reference to persons, are generally of the plural number; as,*

The valiant never taste of death but once. The virtuous are generally the most happy. The diligent make most improvement. The sincere are always esteemed. The inquisitive are generally talkative. The dissipated are much to be pitied. The company of the profane should be carefully avoided. The temperate are generally the most healthy.

RULE 8. *Nouns and pronouns, taken in the same connection, must be of the same case; as,*

The master taught him and me to write. He and she were school-fellows. My brother and he are tolerable grammarians. He gave the book to John and Thomas. I lent my knife and pencil to one of the scholars. Peter and John gained the highest prizes. The snow and the ice have quite disappeared. Exercise and temperance are the best promoters of health.

RULE 9. *A relative generally precedes the verb that governs it; as, He is a friend whom I greatly respect. They whom luxury has corrupted, can not relish the simple pleasures of life. The books which I bought yesterday, I have not yet received. The trees which he planted in the spring have all died. He has lost the friend whom he so much respected. The lesson which we have finished, has not been difficult.*

RULE 10. *When both a relative and its antecedent have each a verb belonging to it, the relative is commonly the nominative to the first verb, and the antecedent to the second; as,*

He *who acts wisely* **DESERVES** praise. He who is a stranger to industry, may possess, but he can not enjoy. They who are born in high stations are not always the most happy. The man who is faithfully attached to religion, may be relied on with confidence. Those who excite envy will easily incur censure.

RULE 11. What, *being equal to that which, or the thing which, may represent two cases, either both nominatives or both objectives; or, the one the nominative and the other the objective; as,*

This is precisely *what* was necessary. What can not be prevented, must be endured. We must not delay till to-morrow, what ought to be done to-day. Choose what is most fit; custom will make it the most agreeable. Foolish men are more apt to consider what they have lost, than what they possess.

RULE 12. Whoever and whosoever, *used as relatives* (§ 16, Obs. 3), *generally have the antecedent implied, so that they seem to stand as the nominative to two verbs, or as at once the objective after a verb or preposition, and the nominative to a succeeding verb. The same is the case with whatever and whatsoever; as,*

Whoever told such a story, *must have been* misinformed. Whoever is not content in poverty, would not be perfectly happy in the midst of plenty. Whoever passes his time in idleness, can make but little improvement. *Whatever* gives pain to others, deserves not the name of pleasure. *Whatever* is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.

NOTE. *Whatever* is most frequently used, as *what* sometimes is (§ 16, Obs. 2), simply to qualify a noun; as,

Aspire to perfection, in *whatever state* of life you may be placed. I forgot what words he uttered. By what means shall we obtain wisdom. By *whatever* arts we may attract attention, we can secure esteem only by amiable dispositions.

RULE 13. *Though participles never directly declare, yet they always imply something either done or doing, and are used in reference to some noun or pronoun; as,*

Admired and *applauded*, he became vain. Having finished our lessons, we went to play. Proceeding on

his journey, he was seized with a dangerous malady. Being engaged at the time of my call, he had not a moment to spend with me. Having early disgraced himself, he became mean and dispirited. Knowing him to be my superior, I cheerfully submitted.

RULE 14. *The past participle of a few intransitive verbs is sometimes joined to the verb to be, which gives them a passive appearance; as,*

I am come, in compliance with your desire. If such maxims and practices prevail, what is become of decency and virtue? The old house is at length fallen down. John is gone to London.

RULE 15. *Intransitives are often followed by prepositions, making what are sometimes called compound transitive verbs. The verb and preposition may in such cases be parsed either together or separately in the active voice. In the passive voice, they must be parsed together; as,*

He laughed at such folly. They smiled upon us in such a way as to inspire courage. He struck at his friend with great violence. He was much laughed at for such conduct. He was prevailed upon to go.

RULE 16. *A noun or pronoun is often used with a participle, without being connected in grammatical construction with any other words of the sentence. It is then called the nominative ABSOLUTE; as,*

The father being dead, the whole estate came into the hands of the eldest son. He destroyed, or won to what may work his utter loss, all this will soon follow. Whose gray top shall tremble, he descending. The house being built and finished, he was expected to take immediate possession. The sun rising, darkness flies away. Our work being finished, we will play.

RULE 17. *To, the sign of the infinitive, is omitted after the verbs bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, and let in the active voice; and sometimes after perceive, behold, observe, have, know, etc.; as,*

Let me look at your portrait. He *bade me go* with him. I heard him assert the opinion. I like to see you

behave so well. Let him apply to his books, and then he will make improvement. Let us make all the haste in our power. I saw him ride past at great speed. I have observed some satirists use the term.

RULE 18. *Verbs connected by conjunctions, are usually in the same mood and tense; but in the compound tenses the sign is often used with the first only, and understood with the rest; as,*

He *can* neither *read* nor *write*. He shall no longer tease and vex me as he has done. He commanded them that they should not depart from Jerusalem, but wait for the promise of the father. His diligence should have been commended and rewarded. Every mind, in its present state, is obliged to receive information, and execute its purposes, by the intervention of the body. Fame can not spread wide, or endure long, that is not rooted in nature, and matured by art.

RULE 19. *Nouns and pronouns are often governed by a preposition understood; and nouns denoting time, value, weight, or measure, are used to restrict verbs or adjectives without a governing word (307); as,*

He gave (to) *me* a full account of the whole affair. Will you lend *me* your knife. It is not time yet to go *home*. He returned home at a very inconvenient season. He travelled on foot last *summer* as far as London. He was in Paris last month. He visited Rome last year in the spring. They remained twenty-four days at Naples, and walked twelve miles each day. I sent him the despatches some time ago. A wall ten feet high. It is worth a dollar.

RULE 20. *The conjunctions than and as, implying comparison, have the same case after them as before them, and the latter case has the same construction as the former; as,*

He has more books than my brother (has). *Mary* is not so handsome as her sister (is). They respect *him* more than (they respect) *us*. James is not so diligent as Thomas. They are much greater gainers than I by this unexpected event. Though she is not so learned as he, she is as much beloved and respected.

RULE 21. *The class of words or part of speech to which a word belongs, depends often on its application; as,*

Calm was the day, and the scene, delightful. We may expect a *calm* after a storm. To prevent passion, is easier than to *calm* it. Better is a little with content, than a great deal with anxiety. The gay and dissolute think little of the miseries which are stealing softly after them. A little attention will rectify some errors. Though he is out of danger, he is still afraid. He laboured to still the tumult. Still waters are commonly deepest. Damp air is unwholesome. Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours. Soft bodies damp the sound much more than hard ones. Though she is rich and fair, yet she is not amiable. They are young, and must suspend their judgment yet a while. Many persons are better than we suppose them to be. The few and the many have their prepossessions. Few days pass without some clouds. Much money is corrupting. Think much and speak little. He has seen much of the world, and been much caressed. His years are more than hers, but he has not more knowledge. The more we are blessed, the more grateful we should be. The desire of getting more is rarely satisfied. He has equal knowledge, but inferior judgment. She is his inferior in sense, but his equal in prudence.

RULE 22. *Do, have, and be, are principal verbs when used by themselves, but auxiliaries when connected with other verbs; as,*

He *does* all in his power to gain esteem. He *did* his utmost to please his friend. We must do nothing that will sully our reputation. She *has* a strong claim to our respect. They had not the slightest intention to wound our feelings. The man who has no sense of religion, is little to be trusted. He who does the most good, has the most pleasure. They *were* not in the most prosperous circumstances, when we last saw them. He does not write so well as he reads. We *did* not stay with him more than a month. True wisdom *does* not inspire pride. The butler *did* not remember Jo-

seph. Did he send the book, as he was desired? Do they make much progress in their studies? Have they ascertained the person who gave the information? They had not determined what course to take. We are surprised at the news.

RULE 23. *An infinitive, a participle, or a member of a sentence, which may be called a substantive phrase, is often the nominative to a verb, or the objective after a transitive verb or preposition; as,*

1. *Nominative.* To study hard, is the best way to improve. To endure misfortune with resignation, is the characteristic of a great mind. To advise the ignorant, relieve the needy and comfort the distressed, are duties incumbent on all. John's being from home occasioned the delay. His having neglected opportunities of improvement, was the cause of his disgrace. The implanting of right principles in the breast of the young, is important both to themselves and to society. To assist a friend in such circumstances, was a duty.

2. *Objective.* He that knows how to do good, and does it not, is without excuse. He will regret his having neglected opportunities of improvement, when it may be too late. He declared that nothing could give him greater pleasure. Of making many books there is no end.

Obs. 1. When a substantive phrase is governed by a verb or preposition, this regimen does not affect the case of individual nouns or pronouns in that phrase, but leaves them subject to the influence of other words within the phrase itself.

Obs. 2. In sentences of this kind, the infinitive mood or participle is often used for the name of the action, or state, or affection expressed by the verb; as, "*to profess* (*professing*) regard, and *to act* (*acting*) differently, marks a base mind." Here it is to be observed that the infinitive and participle are really *abstract nouns* perfectly indefinite in their application, there being no particular subject to which the action may be referred.

If the infinitive or participle of the verb *to be*, or of a passive verb of naming, &c. (§ 61, R. 1), is used in this way without a definite subject, the substantive which follows it as a predicate receives the same indefinite character: it is neither the subject of a verb, nor is under the regimen of any word; thus, "*His being an expert dancer*," does not entitle him to our regard." This will be allowed to be a correct English sentence, complete in itself, and requiring nothing to be supplied. The phrase "*being an expert dancer*," is the subject of the verb "*does entitle*," but the word "*dancer*" in that phrase is neither the subject of any verb, nor is governed by any word in the sentence. Of this kind are all such expressions as the following: "*It is an honor to be the author of such a work.*" "*To be virtuous is to be happy.*" "*To be surety for a stranger is dangerous.*" "*Not to know what happened before you were born, is to be always a child.*" "*The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall neither attempt to palliate or deny*" (Pitt). "*He was not sure of its being I.*" "*Its being he, needs make no difference in your determination.*"

In such examples, whether the phrase be in the nominative or objective case, i. e. whether it be the subject of a verb, or the object of a transitive verb or preposition, the word following the infinitive or participle as a predicate, is properly the *predicate-nominative*. All such phrases are only abridged propositions in which the affirmation is dropped, and the fact is assumed; thus, "*He is a judge*," asserts a fact. "*His being a judge*," or, "*to be a judge*," assumes it.

In all these examples the word *judge* is the predicate-nominative. In parsing such phrases, the words may be taken separately, or the whole phrase may be parsed as one word (§ 61, Rem. 2). See also Analytical and Practical Grammar, 583-24, with references. The following also are examples.

He had the honour of being a director for life. By being a diligent student, he soon acquired eminence in his profession. Many benefits result to men from being wise and temperate (men).

RULE 24. *The pronoun it often refers to persons (§ 15, Obs. 5) or to an infinitive or clause coming after ; as,*

It is John that is to blame. It was I that wrote the letter. It is the duty of all to improve. It is the business of every man, to prepare for death. It was reserved for Newton, to discover the law of gravitation. It is easy to form good resolutions, but difficult to put them in practice. It is incumbent on the young, to love and honour their parents.

RULE 25. *Words, especially in poetry, are often much transposed; as,*

Great is Diana of the Ephesians. On yourself depend for aid. Happy the man who puts his trust in his maker. Of night the gloom was dark and dense.

Or where the gorgeous east, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings barbaric, pearls and gold.

No hive hast thou of hoarded sweets.

A transient calm the happy scenes bestow

When first thy sire to send on earth
Virtue, his darling child, designed.

On flattering appearances put no reliance.

He with viny crown advancing,
First to the lively pipe his hand addressed.

Grieved though thou art, forbear the rash design.
Not half so dreadful rises to the sight
Orion's dog, the year when Autumn weighs.

§ 41. PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN PARSING.

The world was made by a Supreme Being. He who made it, now preserves and governs it. Nothing happens without his permission. He sees all our actions, and hears all our words. The thoughts of the heart are known to him. In him we live, he gave us life, and without him we can not breathe. Wherever we are, God is with us. When we sit in the house, God is there; and when we walk by the way, he is at our right hand. He is a spirit, and fills heaven and earth with his presence.

Demosthenes, who was born at Athens, was a very famous orator. He acquired the art of speaking by great labor and study. By nature he had not a good voice, and could not rightly pronounce some words. That he might learn to speak distinctly, he put small round pebbles in his mouth while he spoke, in order to cure his defect. He used to shut himself up in his chamber, and to study a whole month together. He often went to the shore, and pronounced his orations to the waves, that he might be better able to endure the noise and clamor of the people. He made many orations both on private and public occasions; but he used his eloquence chiefly against Philip, king of Macedonia; and, in several orations, he stirred up the Athenians to make war against him.

The mimic thrush, or mocking bird, is about the size of a blackbird, but somewhat more slender. The plumage is grey, but paler on the under parts than above.

This capricious little mimic seems to have a singular pleasure in archly leading other birds astray. He is said at one time to allure the smaller birds with the call of their mates; and when these come near, to terrify them with the scream of the eagle. There is scarcely a bird of the forest, that is not at some time deceived by his call.

NOTE. For additional exercises in parsing, any simple correct writer may be used.

PART THIRD.

§ 43. SYNTAX.

254. **SYNTAX** is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connection of words in a sentence.

255. A *sentence* is such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense; as, *Man is mortal*.

256. A *phrase* is two or more words rightly put together, but not making complete sense; as, *In truth; to be plain with you*.

257. Sentences are of two kinds, *Simple* and *Compound*.

258. A *Simple* sentence has but one subject and one finite verb, i. e. a verb not in the infinitive or participles; as, *Life is short*.

259. A *Compound* sentence contains two or more simple sentences combined; as, *Life, which is short, should be well employed*.

260. Every simple sentence consists of two parts, the *subject* and the *predicate*.

261. The *subject* is that of which something is affirmed; as, *Snow is white: John reads*.

262. The *predicate* is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, *Snow is white: John reads*.

263. The predicate properly consists of two parts—the *attribute* affirmed of the subject, and the *copula* by which the affirmation is made. Thus in the first example, *is white* is the *predicate*, of which *white* is the *attribute*, and *is*, the *copula*.

264. The attribute and copula are generally expressed by one word, which in that case must always be a verb, as in the second example; *John reads* = *John is reading*. Hence,

265. The predicate may be a *noun* or *pronoun*, an *adjective*, a *preposition* with its *case*, or an *adverb*; also an *infinitive*, or *clause* of a sentence as an *attribute*, together with the *copula* by which it is connected with, and affirmed of the subject; or it may be a *verb*, which includes in itself both *attribute* and *copula*.

266. Both subject and predicate may each be attended by other words called *adjuncts*, which serve to modify or restrict the meaning of the word with which they stand connected; as, "An

Inordinate *desire* of admiration often *produces* a contemptible *levity* of deportment."

267. The subject without an adjunct, is called the *Grammatical subject*; with its adjunct, it is called the *Logical subject*.

268. The predicate without an adjunct, is called the *Grammatical predicate*; with its adjunct, it is called the *Logical predicate*.

269. When a compound sentence is so framed that the meaning is suspended till the whole be finished, it is called a *Period*.

270. § 44. GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF SYNTAX.

1. In every sentence, there must be a *verb* and a *nominative* or subject, expressed or understood.

2. Every article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, must have a substantive expressed or understood.

3. Every subject-nominative has its own verb expressed or understood.

4. Every verb [except in the infinitive and participles] has its own nominative expressed or understood.

5. Every possessive case is governed by a substantive [50], denoting the thing possessed.

6. Every objective case is governed by a transitive verb in the active voice, or preposition [Exc., See 307].

7. The infinitive mood is governed by a verb, an adjective or substantive [For Exc. See § 67].

§ 45. PARTS OF SYNTAX.

271. The Rules of Syntax may all be included under three heads, *Concord*, *Government*, and *Position*.

272. *Concord* is the agreement which one word has with another in gender, number, case, or person.

273. *Government* is that power which one word has in directing the mood, tense or case of another word.

274. *Position* means the place which a word occupies in a sentence.

275. In the English language, which has but few inflections the meaning of a sentence depends much on its arrangement

276. § 46. RULE I. *A Verb must agree with its nominative in number and person*; as, Thou readest, He reads, We read.

277. Rem. 1. The nominative to a verb is known by putting the question *Who* or *What*? with the verb. The answer to the question will be the nominative as, "*I read.*" Who reads? Ans. *I*.

278. Rem. 2. Under this rule the General Principles § 44, 3, 4, must be carefully observed. For, as follows, as concerns, as appears, &c. See § 86, 3.

EXERCISES.

I loves reading. A soft answer *turn* away wrath. We *is* but of yesterday, and knows nothing. The days of man *is* but as grass. Thou *sees* how little has been done. He *need* not proceed in such haste. He *dare* not act otherwise. Fifty pounds of wheat *contains* forty pounds of flour. A variety of pleasing objects *charm* the eye. So much both of ability and merit *are* seldom found. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits *delight* some persons. A judicious arrangement of studies *facilitate* improvement. A few pangs of conscience *now* and then interrupts his pleasure, and whispers to him that he once had better thoughts. There *was* more impostors than one. What signifies good opinions, when our practice *is* bad? To these precepts are subjoined a copious selection of rules and maxims.

In vain our flocks and fields increase our store,
When our abundance make us wish for more.

The number of our days *are* with thee. There remains two points to be considered. There *is* in fact no impersonal verbs in any language. I have considered what *have* been said on both sides. Great pains *has* been taken to make this work as useful as possible. In piety and virtue consist the happiness of man.

In order to exercise the judgment of the pupil, as well as to show that he understands the rule, he may be required to assign a reason for the changes made in correcting the exercises under this and the following rules. If well versed in parsing, this may be done without loss of time, even in a large class, by directing him to state the reason always, without waiting to be asked for it. Thus in the preceding exercises, "*Loves*" should be "*love*," because "*I*" is the 1st pers. sing. "*Turn*" should be "*turns*," because "*answer*" is the 3d pers. sing. &c.

§ 47 SPECIAL RULES AND OBSERVATIONS UNDER RULE I

279. RULE I. *The subject of a verb should be in the nominative, as, He and she are of the same age; not, Him and her.*

280. RULE II. *The Infinitive mood or part of a sentence, is often used as the nominative to a verb; as, To play is pleasant; His being at enmity with Cæsar, was the cause of perpetual discord.*

281. RULE III. *A noun singular used for a plural, is joined to a plural verb; as, Ten sail of the line were seen at a distance. § 10, 4, note.)*

282. NOTE. Nouns plural in form, but singular in signification, may be joined with either a singular or plural verb. § 10, 5.

283. RULE IV. *A noun and its pronoun should never be used as a nominative to the same verb; as, The king is just; not, the king, he is just. Except that himself, herself, etc. are joined with a noun or pronoun, rendering it emphatic. § 15, Obs. 2.*

284. RULE V. *When the verb TO BE stands between a singular and a plural nominative, it agrees with the one next it, or the one which is more naturally the subject of it; as, The wages of sin is death.*

EXERCISES ON PRECEDING RULES.

I. Him and I are able to do it. You and us enjoy many privileges. I thought you and them had become friends. If you were here, you would find three or four, whom you would say pass their time very agreeably.

II. To live soberly, righteously and godly are required of all men. To do to others as we would that they should do to us, constitute the great principle of virtue.

III. Forty head of cattle was grazing in yonder meadow. Twelve brace of pigeons was sold for a dollar.

IV. Simple and innocent pleasures they alone are durable. My banks they are furnished with bees. This rule if it had been observed, a neighboring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which has been offered to him. John, he said so, and Thomas, he said so, and the rest of them, they all said so.

V. A great cause of the low state of industry was the restraints put upon it. His meat were locusts and wild honey. The crown of virtue is peace and honour.

285. § 48. RULE II. *A transitive verb, in the active voice, governs the objective case; as, We love him. He loves us. Whom did they send?*

286. S. RULE I. *The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, as well as a noun or pronoun, may be the object of a transitive active verb; as, Boys love to play; I wish that they were wise.*

287. S. RULE II. *An intransitive verb used transitively (153), governs the objective case; as, "Let us run the race."*

288. S. RULE III. *Verbs signifying TO NAME, CHOOSE, APPOINT and the like, govern two objectives; as, they named him John.*

289. Under S. RULE II, (287), may be classed such expressions as the following: "The brooks ran nectar." "The trees wept gums and balm."

290. Rem. 1. The participle, being a part of the verb, governs the same case.

291. Rem. 2. When the objective is a relative or an interrogative, it comes before the verb that governs it.

292. Rem. 3. A transitive verb in the active voice, without an object, either has an object understood, or is used intransitively (155).

293. Rem. 4. As substantives have no distinct form of the objective case, the arrangement of the sentence should clearly distinguish the one case from the other. The nominative generally precedes the verb; the objective follows it; but when the objective is a relative or interrogative, it precedes both the verb and its nominative. The objective should not, if possible, be separated from its verb.

EXERCISES.

He loves I. He and they we know, but who art thou? She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply. Ye only have I known. Let thou and I try it. He who is guilty, thou shouldst correct; not I who am innocent.

(R. I.) Esteeming themselves wise, they became fools. Upon seeing I, he turned pale. Having exposed his self to the fire of the enemy, he soon lost an arm in the action.

(R. 2.) The man who he raised from obscurity, is dead. Who did they entertain so freely? They are the persons who we ought to respect. Who having not seen, we love. They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, are not happy. Who do I love so much? Who shall I pay for this service?

(R. 3.) *Faulty arrangement.* This is the man, he believed, whom he would send on that business. Becket could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain his right.

§ 49 SPECIAL RULES UNDER RULE II.

294. I. *Intransitive verbs never govern an objective case*; thus "Repenting him of his design," should be, "repenting of his design."

295. *Rem.* Such expressions as "laughed him to scorn;" "looked daggers;" "Talked the night away," are anomalies.

296. II. *Intransitive verbs do not admit a passive voice.*

297. *NOTE.* An intransitive verb used transitively (153), is in that case considered transitive, and not subject to the preceding rules.

298. III. *Transitive verbs do not admit a preposition after them*; thus, "I must premise *with* three circumstances," should be, "I must premise three circumstances."

299. *Obs.* Verbs signifying to ask, teach, offer, promise, pay, tell, allow, deny, and some others, sometimes in colloquial language have an objective case after the passive voice; as, I was taught *Grammar*. This may also be expressed *actively*; as, He taught (to) me *Grammar*; or *passively*, *Grammar* was taught (to) me.

EXERCISES.

I. The king found reason to repent him of such dangerous enemies. They did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject. Go flee thee away into the land of Judea. It will be difficult to agree his conduct with the principles he professes. "Then having showed his wounds, he'd sit him down."

II. This person was entered into a conspiracy against his master. Fifty men are deserted from the army. The influence of this corrupt example was then entirely ceased. My father was returned yesterday.

III. I shall premise with two or three general observations. He ingratiates with some, by traducing others. We ought to disengage from the world by degrees. He will not allow of it. They shall not want for encouragement. The covetous man pursues after gain.

[*Obs.*] *Change the following sentences into the forms specified in the Obs.*—A few questions were asked at the witness. A ship was promised to him in a few weeks. A pardon was offered [to] him. Great liberty was allowed [to] me. That was told [to] him some time ago. The jewels were offered to her.

300. § 50. RULE III. *Prepositions govern the objective case; as, To whom much is given, of him much shall be required.*

301. *Obs.* The object of a preposition is sometimes an infinitive mood, or part of a sentence; as, *About to depart*; Much depends on *who are his advisers*.

302. *Rem.* 1. Prepositions are commonly placed before the words which they govern, and as near to them as possible; but never before the relative *that*. But *whom* and *which* are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them; but this should generally be avoided in composition.

303. *Rem.* 2. The preposition, with its regimen, should be placed as near as possible to the word to which it is related.

304. *Rem.* 3. *For* is not now used before the infinitive mood.

305. *Rem.* 4. It is generally inelegant and improper to connect a preposition and active verb with the same word; as, I wrote *to*, and *warned him* of his danger.

306. *Rem.* 5. The preposition is often omitted; as, Give [to] me the book; Give it [in] your own way; I wrote [to] you long ago; like [unto] his father. Many cases of supposed ellipsis, however, may come under the following:

307. S. RULE. *Nouns denoting time, value, weight, or measure, are commonly put in the objective case, without a governing word; as, "He was absent six months." "It costs a penny; but it is not worth a farthing." "The parcel weighs a pound." "The wall is six feet high."*

EXERCISES.

To who will you give that pen? Will you go with him and I? Withhold not good from they to who it is due. With who do you live? Great friendship subsists between he and I. He laid the suspicion on somebody, I know not who, in the company. [Rem. 1] Who do you speak to? Who did they ride with? To have no one who we are concerned for, is a deplorable state. It was not he whom they were so angry with. The book which the story is printed in, is full of fiction. 2. The embarrassments of the artificers rendered the progress very slow of the work. Beyond this period, the arts can not be traced of civil society. 3. What went ye out for to see? Can you give me wax for to seal this letter? He set out for to go home an hour ago. 4. He was afraid of, and wished to shun them. He claimed and insisted upon his rights. 5. Will you lend to me your grammar? I will return it on to-morrow.

308. § 51. RULE IV. *Two or more substantives singular, taken in connection, require a verb in the plural; as, 1. Cato and Cicero were learned. 2. Honor, justice, religion itself, are derided by the profligate.*

309. *Rem. 1.* Substantives are viewed in connection when they stand together as the nominative to the same verb, not separately, but combined, forming a plural subject, i. e. a subject consisting of more things than one. Sometimes they are joined by the conjunction *and*, as in the first example; sometimes they are without a conjunction, as in the second.

310. *Rem. 2.* A singular nominative and an objective connected by *with*, sometimes have a plural verb; as, "The *ship* with the *crew* *were* lost." This construction is incorrect, and should not be imitated. It should be "the *ship* with the crew *was* lost," or, "the *ship* and the *crew* *were* lost."

311. *Rem. 3.* But when two names are used to represent one subject, the verb must be in the singular; as, *Why is dust and ashes proud.*

312. *Rem. 4.* When *comparison* is expressed or implied, and not *combination*, the verb should be singular; as, *Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was remarkable for eloquence (315).*

EXERCISES.

Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains. Life and death is in the power of the tongue. Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity. Anger and impatience is always unreasonable. His politeness and good disposition was, on failure of their effect, entirely changed. By whose power all good and evil is distributed. Languor and satiety destroys all enjoyment. Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing. Leisure of life and tranquillity of mind, which fortune and your own wisdom has given you, is capable of being better employed.

[*Rem. 3.*] That able scholar and critic have been eminently useful. Your friend and patron, whose name I have forgotten, have just now been enquiring for you.

[*Rem. 4.*] I, as well as they, are entitled to redress. Perseverance, as well as talents and application, are necessary to eminence in literary pursuits. But he, as well as Lord Clive, have been harshly judged by men who have listened to their enemies.

313. § 52. RULE V. *Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular; as, John, or James, or Andrew, intends to accompany you.*

314. Rem. 1. Substantives are taken separately, when, though they all stand as the nominative to the verb, yet either one, exclusive of all the rest, is the subject of discourse, as in the example above; or, though all are equally the subject of discourse, yet they are not so in combination, but *individually*. In this case the verb agrees with the last, and is understood to the rest.

315. Rem. 2. Substantives taken separately are connected by *or, nor, as well as, and also*. A noun taken to the exclusion of the rest is connected with them by such expressions as, *and not, but not, not*, etc. Also nouns after *each, every, no*, though connected by *and*. But *each* and *every* used distributively after a plural subject, do not affect the verb; as, "*They have conspired, each to recommend the other;*" "*They, each in his turn, have done their duty.*"

316. RULE. *A singular and a plural nominative, connected by a disjunctive, require a verb in the plural, and the plural nominative should be placed next the verb; as, Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved.*

EXERCISES.

Either the boy or the girl were present. It must be confessed that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in it robbery or murder. The modest virgin, the prudent wife, or the careful matron, are much more serviceable in life than a petticoated philosopher. Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example. A clock or a watch move merely as it is moved. Every man, woman, and child, were excluded. They, every one, pursues their destined course. Each of the seasons, as it revolves, give fresh proof of the Divine power and goodness. The seasons, each as it revolves, gives pleasure to the soul. Neither poverty nor riches was injurious to him. They or he was offended. Neither the king nor his ministers deserves to be praised. Whether one or more was concerned in the business, does not yet appear. An ostentatious, a feeble, a harsh, or an obscure style, are always a fault. Neither the captain, nor the passengers, nor any of the crew, was saved.

317. § 53. RULE VI. 1. *When two or more nominatives combined are of different persons, the verb is plural, and prefers the first person to the second, and the second, to the third; as, He and I are brothers.*

2. *When nominatives of different persons are disjunctively connected, the verb in the singular agrees with the person next to it; as, "He or I am to blame."*

It is generally better, however, to express the verb with each nominative; as, "He *is* to blame, or I *am*."

318. *Rem. 1.* In the order of arrangement in English, the second person is usually placed before the third, and the first person is always placed last.

319. *Rem. 2.* Under the first of these rules, if the verb be made plural, there will be no liability to error in *person*, as all the persons in the plural are alike. Still, the rule will serve to point out the person of the verb. Thus, *are* in the example is in the first person.

EXERCISES.

1. James, and thou, and I, am attached to our country. Thou, and the gardener, and the huntsman, has to share the blame of this business. My sister and I, as well as my brother, is daily employed in our respective occupations. While you are playing, my brother and I am attentive to our studies.

2 Either thou or I art greatly mistaken. He or I is sure of this week's prize. (*Rem. 1*) I or John has done it. He or thou art the person who must go on that business. Thomas or thou hast spilt the ink on my paper.

Promiscuous Exercises on the Preceding Rules.

You was there. Was the horses ready. There are a flock of geese. In the human species, the influence of instinct and habit are generally assisted by the suggestions of reason. His having robbed several men, were the cause of his punishment. Learning, how much soever it may be despised by some, yet men know it to be an acquirement of great value. He, not the ministers, control all things. His wisdom and not his money produce esteem.

320. § 54. RULE VII. 1. *When a collective noun conveys the idea of unity, its verb must be singular ;* as, *The class was large.*

2. *When a collective noun conveys the idea of plurality, the verb must be plural ;* as, *My people do not consider.*

321. *Rem. 1.* Pronouns referring to collective nouns must in like manner be singular or plural, according as the idea of unity or plurality is expressed (343).

322. *Rem. 2.* It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a noun expresses *unity* or *plurality*. It is now considered generally best to use the plural where the singular is not *manifestly* required.

EXERCISES.

Stephen's party were entirely broken up. The meeting were well attended. The people has no opinion of their own. The people was very numerous. A company of troops were despatched to the opposite side of the river. The people rejoices in what should give them sorrow. The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as their chief good. In France, the peasantry goes barefooted, while the middle sort makes use of wooden shoes. The British parliament are composed of king, lords, and commons. The fleet is all arrived and moored in safety. The flock, and not the fleece, are, or ought to be, the object of the shepherd's care. When the nation complain, the rulers should listen. The regiment consist of a thousand men. Never were any nation so infatuated. But this people who know not the law is cursed. The shoal of herrings were immense. Why do this generation seek after a sign? The fleet were seen sailing up the channel. Mankind is more united by the bonds of friendship at present than formerly. Part of the coin were preserved. The royal society are numerous and flourishing. "The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea." The noble army of martyrs praiseth thee, O God! A great number of women were present. The audience takes this in good part. All mankind composes one family.

233. § 55. RULE VIII. 1. *An adjective qualifies the substantive to which it belongs; as, A good boy*

2. *Adjectives denoting one, qualify nouns in the singular; those denoting more than one, qualify nouns in the plural; as, This man, these men.*

334. *Rem. 1. This rule applies also to participles, and adjective pronouns.*

325. S. RULE. *Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, "He is miserable poor," should be "he is miserably poor."*

326. *Rem. 2. The distinction is: adjectives qualify substantives; adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs*

327. *Rem. 3. Adjectives joined with the singular, are the ordinal numbers, first, second, last, &c.; one, each, every, either, neither, much with its comparative more—all, denoting quantity, enough, whole. See § 18, (137).*

328. When any of these is joined with a plural noun, the whole is regarded as one aggregate; as, *The first two weeks; Every ten miles.* App. XX.

329. *Rem. 4. Adjectives joined with the plural only, are all cardinal numbers above one, the words few, many, with its comparative more, both, several, &c. Many is sometimes construed with a singular noun; as, "Full many a flower."*

330. *Rem. 5. The adjectives, all, no, some, other, may be joined with a singular or plural noun according to the sense.*

331. *Rem. 5. "This here," "that there," for this and that; and "them," "them there," for these and those, are vulgarisms.*

332. *Rem. 6. This means and that means refer to one cause; these means, those means, to more than one (§ 10, 5 note). Amends is used in the same way*

333. *[Rem. 8. An adjective as a predicate qualifies the subject; as, God is good.]*

EXERCISES.

This boys are diligent. I have not seen him this ten days. Those sort of people fear nothing. These soldiers are remarkable tall. They behaved the noblest. It is uncommon good. Them books are almost new. Give me that there knife. These kind of favors did real injury. There is six foot of water in the hold. I have no interests but that of truth and virtue. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. Charles was extravagant, and by those means became poor. The scholars were attentive and industrious, and by that means acquired knowledge. Let each esteem others better than themselves. Are either of these men your friend?

334. § 56. RULE IX. *When two persons or things are contrasted, that refers to the first mentioned, and this to the last; as, Virtue and vice are opposite qualities; that ennobles the mind, this debases it.*

335. Rem. 1. *Former and latter, one and other*, are often used instead of *that and this*. *Former and latter* are alike in both numbers; *one and other* refer to the singular only. *That and this*, under this rule, are seldom applied to persons; but *former and latter* are applied to persons or things indiscriminately. In most cases the repetition of the noun is preferable to either of them.

336. Rem. 2. Hence in the use of the demonstratives when no contrast is expressed, *this* and *these* refer to things *present or just mentioned*; *that* and *those*, to things *distant or formerly mentioned*. Thus, "They can not be separated from the subject, and for *that* reason," &c., should be "and for *this* reason," &c.

EXERCISES.

Wealth and poverty are both temptations to man; this tends to excite pride, that discontentment. Religion raises men above themselves, irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth, this opens for them a prospect to the skies. The king and the tyrant are very different characters; that rules his people by his absolute will and power, this by laws to which they consent. More rain falls in the first two summer months than in the first two winter ones; but it makes a much greater show in the one than in the other, because there is a much slower evaporation. Health is more valuable than great possessions, and yet the latter is often sacrificed in the pursuit of the former. Exercise and temperance are the best promoters of health: that prevents disease; this often dissipates it.

Self-love, the spring of motion, moves the soul,
Reason's comparing balance rules the whole:
Man, but for this, no action could attend;
Man, but for that, were active to no end.

(Rem. 2.) That very subject which we are now discussing, is still involved in mystery. This vessel of which you spoke yesterday, sailed for the West Indies this morning at ten o'clock.

337. § 57. **RULE X.** *Pronouns agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, John is here; he came an hour ago. Every tree is known by its fruit.*

SPECIAL RULES.

338. **RULE I.** *When a pronoun refers to two or more substantives taken together and of different persons, it becomes plural, and prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, John and I do our duty.*

339. **RULE II.** *When a pronoun refers to two or more substantives of the same gender, taken separately, or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, A clock or a watch is complicated in its movements. (315.)*

340. **NOTE.** Singular substantives of different genders, taken separately, can not be represented by one pronoun in English, for want of a third personal pronoun of the common gender; thus, we can not say, "If a man or a woman hurt himself." In such cases, though contrary to rule, it is better to use the plural, *themselves*, than the clumsy expression, "hurt himself or herself."

341. **RULE III.** *But if either of the substantives referred to be plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, Neither he nor they trouble themselves.*

342. **Rem. 1.** Nouns are taken together when connected by *and* expressed or understood; *separately*, when connected by *or* or *nor*, &c. (see 314, 315).

343. **RULE IV.** *When a pronoun refers to a collective noun in the singular expressing many as one whole, it should be in the neuter singular; as, The army proceeded on its march. But when it expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, "The court were divided in their opinions."*

344. **Rem. 2.** It is improper, in the progress of a sentence, to express the same object by pronouns of different forms or genders; as, I laboured long to make *thee* happy, and now *you* reward me by ingratitude. It should be either, "to make *you* happy," or, "*thou* rewardest."

EXERCISES.

Answer not a fool according to her folly. A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty, but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both. Take handfuls of ashes of the furnace, and let Moses sprinkle it towards heaven in the sight of Pharaoh; and it shall become small dust. The crown had it in their power to give such rewards

Exercises on RULE X. continued.

as they thought proper. The fruit tree beareth fruit after his kind. Rebecca took goodly raiment and put them upon Jacob. [Let every boy answer for themselves. Each of us had more than we wanted. Every one of you should attend to your own business. A man's recollections of the past regulate their anticipations of the future. A person's success in life depends on their exertions.]

I. Thou and he shared it between them. James and I are attentive to their studies. You and he are diligent in reading their books; therefore they are good boys.

II. John or James will favor us with their company. One or other must relinquish their claim. Each book and each paper is in their place. Every day and every hour brings their own temptations. Neither wealth nor honor confers happiness on their votaries. No thought, no word, no action, whether they be good or evil, can escape in the judgment. NOTE. Let every man and woman do her best. If any boy or girl should neglect her duty, they shall forfeit their place.

IV. The assembly held their meetings in the evening. The court in their wisdom decided otherwise. Society is not always answerable for the conduct of their members. Send the multitude away, that it may go and buy itself bread. The public are informed that its interests are secured.

[Rem. 2.] Virtue forces her way through obscurity, and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded. Thou hast ever shewn thyself my real friend, and your kindness to me I can never forget. Care for thyself, if you would have others care for thee. Though you are great, yet consider thou art a man.

You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song,
Till nobly rises emulous thy own.

Thou, goddess—mother, with our sire comply,
If you submit, the thunderer stands appeased.

345. § 58. RULE XI. *The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person, and the verb agrees with it accordingly; as, Thou who speakest. The book which was lost.*

346. *Rem.* 1. The antecedent, or that to which the relative refers, may be a noun, or pronoun, as in the examples above; also an imperative mood, or clause of a sentence; as, "*To act rashly, which is often done, is unwise.*"

347. *Rem.* 2. *Who* is applied to persons, or things personified; *which*, to all other objects—sometimes to children—to collective nouns composed of persons, when unity is expressed; and also to persons in asking questions. § 17, Obs. 1, 2, 4.

348. *Rem.* 3. The relative *that* is used instead of *who* or *which*—

1. After adjectives in the superlative degree; after the words *very*, *same* and *all*, and often after *no*, *some* and *any*.

2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, *The man, and the horse that we saw yesterday.*

3. After the interrogative *who*; often after the personal pronouns, and generally when the propriety of *who* or *which* is doubtful; as, *Who that has any sense of religion, would have argued thus. I that speak in righteousness.*

EXERCISES.

1 & 2. Those which seek wisdom, will certainly find her. This is the friend which I love. That is the vice whom I hate. This moon who rose last night had not yet filled her horns. Blessed is the man which walketh in wisdom's ways. Thou who has been a witness of the fact, canst give an account of it. I am happy in the friend which I have long proved. The court who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary. The tiger is a beast of prey, who destroys without pity. Who of these men came to his assistance? [§ 17, Obs. 1].

3. It is the best which can be got. Solomon was the wisest man whom the world ever saw. It is the same picture which you saw before. "And all which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave, await alike the inevitable hour." The lady and lapdog which we saw at the window, have disappeared. The men and things which he has studied, have not contributed to the improvement of his morals. I who speak unto thee, am he. Sidney was one of the wisest and most active governors which Ireland had enjoyed for several years. He has committed the same fault which I condemned yesterday.

§ 59. SPECIAL RULES AND OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XI.

349. **RULE I.** *The relative, with its clause, should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent, to prevent ambiguity; thus, "The boy beat his companion, whom every body believed incapable of doing mischief," should be "The boy, whom every body believed incapable of doing mischief, beat his companion." Hence,*

350. **RULE II.** *When the relative is preceded by two words referring to the same thing, one in the subject and the other in the predicate, its proper antecedent is the one next to it; as, Thou art the man who was engaged in that business.*

351. *Rem. 1.* If the relative in the preceding example referred to *thou*, the sentence should be arranged thus, "*Thou who* wast engaged in that business, art the man." In such sentences care should always be taken to ascertain to which word the relative and its clause belongs, and to arrange the sentence accordingly. In this, the sense is the only guide.

352. **RULE III.** *The antecedent, if a pronoun of the third person, is often understood when no emphasis is implied; it is omitted before what, and the compound relatives, whoever, whosoever, etc. (§ 16, Obs. 3.)*

353. *Rem. 2.* The relative is sometimes understood, especially in colloquial language; as, "The friend I visited yesterday, is dead to-day," for "The friend whom I visited," &c.

EXERCISES.

I. The king dismissed his minister, without any inquiry, who had never before committed so unjust an action. The soldier with a single companion, who passed for the bravest man in the regiment, offered his services. Thou art a friend indeed, who hast relieved me in this dangerous crisis.

II. Thou art the friend that hast often relieved me, and that hast not deserted me now in the time of peculiar need. I am the man who command you. I am the person who adopt that sentiment, and maintain it. Thou art he who driedst up the Red Sea.

III. He whoever steals my purse, steals trash. Those whom he would, he slew; and those whom he would, he kept alive. The man whosoever committeth sin, is the servant of sin. To them whomsoever he saw in distress, he imparted relief.

‡ 60. RULE XII. *Substantives denoting the same person or thing, agree in case; as, Cicero the Orator.*

Words thus used are said to be in *apposition*

355. Words in apposition must always be in the same member of the sentence; i. e. both in the subject or both in the predicate.

356. *Rem. 1.* Two or more nouns, forming one complex name, or a name and a title, with the definite article and a numeral adjective prefixed, have the plural termination annexed to the *last* only; as, the two Miss *Hays*. The three Miss *Browns*. The two Dr. *Monroes*.

357. *Rem. 2.* But when used without the numeral, the plural termination is annexed to the *first*; as, *Messrs.* Thompson. *Misses* Hamilton. § 10, 1. But of married ladies, the *name* only is pluralized; as, the Mrs. *Browns*.

358. *Rem. 3.* Distributive words are sometimes put in apposition with a plural substantive; as, They stood each in the other's way. In this way is to be resolved the common phrase, "They stood in each other's way." "They loved one another" = they loved, one (loved) another.

359. **S. RULE.** *The word containing the answer to a question, must always be in the same case with the word that asks it; as, Who did that? I (did it). Whose books are these? John's.*

EXERCISES.

The chief of the princes, him who defied the bravest of the enemy, was assassinated by a dastardly villain. He was the son of the Rev. Dr. West, he who published Pindar at Oxford.

(*Rem. 1, 2.*) The two Misses Louisa Howard are very amiable young ladies. The two Messrs. Websters left town yesterday. The two Messrs. Websters will return to-morrow. The Doctors Stevensons have been successful in performing a very difficult operation. The two Doctors Ramsays have returned. The Mrs. Townsends were there, as well as the Mrs. Bay.

(**S. RULE.**) Of whom were the articles bought? Of a grocer, he who resides near the Mansion House. Was any person besides the grocer present? Yes, both him and his clerk were present. Who was the money paid to? To the grocer. Who counted it? Both the clerk and him. Who said that? Me. Whose books are these? Her who went out a few minutes ago.

360. § 61. RULE XIII. *The predicate substantive after a verb, is in the same case as the subject before it; as, It is I. I took it to be him.*

361. *Rem. 1.* The verbs which connect the subject and its predicative substantive under this rule, are chiefly the verb *to be*, *to become*, and some other intransitive verbs, and passive verbs of *naming*, *choosing*, *appointing*, and the like, as, *He shall be called John. He became the slave of passion. Stephen died a martyr.* Hence the case of the *subject* determines the case of the *predicate*.

362. *Rem. 2.* In substantive phrases, the infinitive or participle of an intransitive verb without a subject, is followed by a substantive or adjective taken indefinitely, and the substantive is in the nominative case (§ 40, R. 23, Obs. 2); as, "To be the slave of passion, is of all slavery the most wretched." "His *dying intestate* caused all this trouble." "It is our duty to be obedient to our parents."

363. *Rem. 3.* In English almost any verb may be used as a *copula* between its subject and an adjective as a part, or at least as a modification of the predicate; as, "It tastes good," "The wind blows hard," "I remember right," "He feels sick," "He strikes hard," "He drinks deep," &c. In such expressions the adjective somewhat resembles an adverb in its use, and has sometimes been parsed as such. It is, however, an adjective in fact as well as in form, and qualifies the subject, not simply as a substantive, but as a substantive affected by, or connected with the action expressed by the verb. This is a common phraseology of our language, especially in poetry, and is analogous to the Latin "*insones feci*," "I did it innocently;" "*accurrunt læti*," "they run up *joyfully*"

EXERCISES.

It was me who wrote the letter. Be not afraid, it is me. I am certain that it could not have been her. It is them that deserve most blame. You would undoubtedly act the same part if you were him. I understood it to be he. It may have been him, but there is no proof of it. It may have been him or them that did it.

Who do you think him to be? Whom do men say that I am? She is the person who I understood it to have been. Let him be whom he may, I am not afraid of him. Was it me that said so? It is impossible to be them. I am certain it was not him.

Promiscuous Exercises

Surely thou who reads so much in the Bible, can tell me what became of Elijah. Neither the master nor the scholars is here. Trust not him whom you know is dishonest. I love no interests but that of truth and virtue

364. § 62. RULE XIV. *When two nouns come together, denoting the possessor and the thing possessed, the first is put in the possessive case; as, John's book; on eagle's wings.*

Obs. The latter or governing substantive is frequently understood; as, I found him at the *stationer's* (viz. *shop or house*).

365. *Rem.* 1. A noun and its possessive pronoun should not be used for the possessive; thus, "A *man his* ways," should be, "A *man's* ways."

366. *Rem.* 2. The preposition *of*, with the objective, is generally equivalent to the possessive case, and is often used in preference to it. Thus, "In the name of the army, is better than "In the army's name." Sometimes, however, these two modes of expression are not equivalent; thus, "The Lord's day," and "The day of the Lord," convey ideas entirely different.

367. *Rem.* 3. Sometimes *of* is used before the possessive governing a substantive understood after it; as, This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's (viz. *discoveries*). "This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton," expresses the same idea. These two modes of expression, however, sometimes convey quite different ideas; thus, "A picture of my friend," means a portrait of him; "A picture of my friend's," means a picture belonging to him (App. XIV). Under both these remarks, it may be observed as a general—

RULE. *In the use of the possessive, or of its equivalent of, with the objective, care should be taken to avoid harshness on the one hand, and ambiguity on the other.*

EXERCISES.

It is Pompeys pillar. Seek Virtues reward. A mans manners frequently influence his fortune. My ancestors virtue is not mine. Asa his heart was perfect with the Lord. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care are nature's gifts for mans advantage. Helen her beauty was the cause of Troy its destruction. Longinus his treatise on the sublime. For Christ his sake.

[*Rem.* 3.] The Commons' vote was decidedly against the measure. The Lord's house adjourned at a late hour. The Representative's house convened at 12 o'clock. He married my daughter's husband's sister. She married the brother of the wife of my son. The Lord's day will come as a thief in the night. The next day of the Lord came all the people to hear the word. That is a good likeness of De Witt Clinton's. He is the only son of his mother's. The court's decision. The report of the sickness of the son of the king of England, excited the nation's fears.

368. § 63. OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XIV.

1. When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive ('s) is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," i. e. books the common property of Jane and Lucy. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," i. e. books, some of which are Jane's, and others, Lucy's. "This gained the king's, as well as the people's, approbation."

2. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, "Julius Cæsar's Commentaries." "John the Baptist's head." "His brother Philip's wife." "The Bishop of London's charge."

3. When a short explanatory term is joined to a name, the sign of the possessive may be annexed to either; as, I called at Smith's the bookseller, or, at Smith the bookseller's. But if, to such a phrase, the governing substantive is added, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the last; as, "I called at Smith the bookseller's shop."

4. If the explanatory circumstance be complex, or consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the name or first substantive; as, "This Psalm is David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the people." "That book is Smith's, the bookseller in Maiden Lane."

5. When two nouns in the possessive are governed by different words, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to each; as, "He took refuge at the governor's, the king's representative," i. e. at the "Governor's house."

6. The *s* after the apostrophe is omitted, when the *first* noun has the sound of *s* in its last syllable, and the second noun begins with *s*; as, For righteousness' sake, etc. (§ 11, Obs. 2). In other cases, such omission would generally be improper; as, James book, Miss' shoes; instead of James's book, Miss's shoes (See An. Gr., 175).

7. A clause of a sentence should never come between the possessive case and the word by which it is governed; thus, "She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding," should be, "the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

8. The possessive *whosoever*, and the compounds *whichever*, *whatsoever*, *howsoever*, are sometimes divided by interposing the word to which they belong; as, *whose house soever*; *what man soever*. This, in general, however, is to be avoided, and to be admitted only when euphony and precision are thereby promoted.

RULE XIV. *Continued.*

EXERCISES ON OBSERVATIONS.

1. William's and Mary's reign. This is your father's, mother's and brother's advice. Peter's, John's, and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen. He asked his father, as well as his mother's advice. John and Robert's boots fit them very well. The Betsey and the Speedwell's cargoes were both damaged.

2. Jack's the Giant-killer's wonderful exploits. The Bishop's of Landaff's excellent work. During Charles's the second's reign. The Lord Mayor's of London authority. That carriage is the Lord Mayor's of London.

3. The books were left at Brown's the bookseller's. I left him at Mayell's the hatter's shop. Thorburn's the seedsman store is now open.

4. The books were left at Brown the bookseller and stationer's. I left the parcel at Johnson, a respectable bookseller, a worthy man, and an old friend's. I reside at Lord Stormont, my old patron and benefactor's. Whose glory did he emulate? He emulated Cæsar, the greatest general of antiquity's.

5. That book is Thompson the Tutor's assistant. We spent an hour at Wilson the Governor's deputy, and on our return called at Mr. Smith, little Henry's father.

6. James' father arrived yesterday, and Mr. Spence' servant came with him. Charles' books are completely spoiled. For conscience's sake. Miss' books will be sent.

7. They very justly condemned the prodigal's, as he was called, extravagant conduct. This is Paul's the christian hero and great apostle of the Gentiles advice. Beyond this the arts can not be traced of civil society

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON THIS RULE.

The Emperor and the dukes cavalry were engaged. This is for consciences sake. Escape Atrides ire. He bought the articles at Wilson's the druggist's. William and John's wives were present. The estate of William's was much encumbered.

369. § 64. RULE XV. *When the present or perfect participle is used as a noun (195), a substantive before it is put in the possessive case; as, Much depends on the pupil's composing frequently; his having done so is evident.*

370. *Obs.* A pronoun in this construction must be the possessive pronoun, not the possessive case; as, Much depends on *your* composing, &c., not *yours*.

371. *Rem. 1.* If the participle is not used as a noun, the noun or pronoun before it may be in any case which the construction requires; as, "I see men walking." These two modes of expression, in many cases, convey very different ideas, and therefore care should be taken not to confound them; thus, "What do you think of my horse running to-day?" means, Do you think I should let him run? But, "What do you think of my horse's running to-day?" means, he has run, do you think he ran well?

372. *Rem. 2.* The present participle, with a possessive before it, sometimes admits of after it, and sometimes not. Here the sense must guide.

373. *Rem. 3.* When a preposition or infinitive follows the participle, *of* is inadmissible; as, His depending on promises, proved his ruin. His neglecting to study when young, rendered him ignorant all his life.

EXERCISES.

What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily? I remember it being done? This jealousy accounts for Hall charging the Duke of Gloucester with the murder of Prince Edward. He being a great man, did not make him a happy man. Much depends on the rule being observed. Richard observing the rule, will be the means of him avoiding error. What do you think of my horse running to-day? did he run well? Man rebelling against his Maker brought him into ruin. A man being poor, does not make him miserable.

[Rem. 1.] That man's running so fast, is in danger of falling. A youth's pursuing his studies with diligence and perseverance, can hardly fail of success.

[Rem. 2.] Our approving their bad conduct may encourage them to become worse. For his avoiding that precipice, he is indebted to his friend's care. Their observing the rules prevented errors. By his studying of the scriptures, he became wise. Their condemning of the innocent and acquitting of the guilty will cover them with infamy.

374. § 65. RULE XVI. *When the present participle, used as a noun, has an article before it, it should have the preposition of after it; as, In the keeping of his commandments there is a great reward.*

375. *Rem.* 1. The sense will often be the same, if both the article and the preposition be omitted; but the one should not be omitted without the other; thus, "In keeping his commandments," &c.

376. *Rem.* 2. In some cases, however, these two modes express very different ideas, and therefore attention to the sense is necessary; as, "He confessed the whole in the hearing of three witnesses, and the court spent an hour in hearing their deposition." To prevent ambiguity in such cases, observe the following

377. RULE. *When the participle expresses something of which the noun following is the doer, it should have the article and preposition; as, "It was said in the hearing of the witness." When it expresses something of which the noun following is not the doer, but the object, both should be omitted; as, "the Court spent some time in hearing the witness."*

378. *Rem.* 3. When a preposition follows the participle so that it can not be used (373), and yet an article is required before it, it is generally better to adopt a different mode of expression; thus, "The not attending to duty:" better, "the want of attention to duty."

EXERCISES.

Learning of languages is very difficult. The learning any thing speedily, requires great application. By the exercising our faculties, they are improved. By observing of these rules, you will avoid mistakes. By the obtaining wisdom, thou wilt command esteem. This was a betraying the trust reposed in him. The not attending to this rule, is the cause of a very common error. He confined all his philosophy to the suffering ills patiently. This order so critically given, occasioned the gaining the battle. This was, in fact, converting the deposits to his own use. Propriety of pronunciation is the giving to a word its proper sound.

(*Rem.* 2.) At hearing the ear they shall obey. Because of provoking his sons and daughters, the Lord abhorred them. He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher. In the hearing of the will read, and in the examining of sundry papers much time was spent.

379. § 66. RULE XVII. *The past participle, and not the past tense, should be used after the verbs HAVE and BE; as, I have written (not, I have wrote). I am chosen.*

380. S. RULE. *The past participle should not be used instead of the past tense; thus, it is improper to say, "he begun," for "he began;" "he run," for "he ran;" "he done," for "he did;" "he seen," for "he saw."*

381. Rem. The present participle active, and not the past, is used after the verb *to be*, to express the continued suffering of an action; as, "The house *is building*," not "*being built*." When the participle in *ing* has not a passive sense, the idea must be expressed by means of the active voice. Thus we do not say, "the book *is now reading*," (nor "the book *is now being read*,") but "he (or she, &c.) *is now reading the book*" (190). See also App. XIX.

EXERCISES.

I would have wrote a letter. He had mistook his true interest. The coat had no seam, but was wove throughout. The French language is spoke in every part of Europe. His resolution was too strong to be shook by slight opposition. The horse was stole from the pasture. They have chose the part of honor and virtue. She was shewed into the drawing room. He has broke the bottle. Some fell by the way side and was trode down. The work was very well execute. He has chose to ride. He has drunk too much. I am almost froze. He has forsook us. It was well wrote.

S. R. By too eager pursuit, he run a great risk of being disappointed. He soon begun to weary of having nothing to do. He was greatly heated, and drunk with avidity. The bending hermit here a prayer begun. And end with sorrows as they first begun.

A second deluge learning thus o'er-run,

And the Monks finished what the Goths begun.

These men done more than could have been expected. There can be no mistake, for I seen them do it.

[Rem.] The work was then being printed, and it was expected to be published in a few days. That house has been being built for six months; it is now being plastered, and will be finished soon.

382. § 67. RULE XVIII. *The infinitive mood is governed by VERBS, NOUNS, or ADJECTIVES; as, I desire to learn—A desire to learn—desirous to learn.*

SPECIAL RULES.

383. I. *One verb being the subject of another, is put in the infinitive; as, "To study is profitable."*

384. II. *One verb governs another as its object in the infinitive; as, Boys love to play.*

385. III. *The infinitive is used to express the purpose, end, or design, of a preceding act; as, "Some who came to scoff, remained to pray."*

386. IV. *In comparisons, the infinitive is put after so — as, too, or than; as, "Be so good as to read this letter."*

387. V. *To, the sign of the infinitive, is not used after the verbs bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, and let in the active voice, nor after let in the passive. (See An. Gram. 878.)*

Also sometimes after *perceive, behold, observe, have, and know.*

388. Rem. 1. *The infinitive, as the subject or the object of a verb, may have a subject of its own in the objective; as, For us to lie is base. I wished him to go.*

389. Rem. 2. *The infinitive may be considered as a verbal noun having the nominative and accusative. It is used after the preposition about; as, About to depart; and it is sometimes independent; as, To confess the truth, I was in fault.*

EXERCISES.

Strive learn. They obliged him do it. Newton did not wish obtrude his discoveries on the public. His penetration and diligence seemed vie with each other.

V. They need not to call upon her. I dare not to proceed so hastily. I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly. He bade me to go home. It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one and to reject the other. We heard the thunder to roll. He felt the pain to abate. I would have you to take more care. He was reluctantly made obey. They were heard say it in a large company. They were seen pass the house. He was let to go. I have observed some satirist to use the term.

390. § 68. RULE XIX. 1. *When doubt and futurity are both implied, the subjunctive mood is used; as, Though he fall (hereafter), he shall rise again.*

2. *When doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative is used; as, If he speaks (i. e. now) as he thinks, he may be safely trusted.*

391. *Remark.* Doubt is usually expressed by the conjunctions *if, though, unless, except, whether, &c.* Whether futurity is implied or not, must be ascertained from the context. In accurate composition, of course, the mood employed will direct to the meaning of the sentence; thus, "I will do it if the master *desires* me" (i. e. at present). Here there is uncertainty only whether he *does desire* me. "I will do it if the master *desire* me" (i. e. at a future time). Here there is uncertainty whether he *will desire* me or not. Consequently there is both doubt and futurity. *If* and *though*, when referring to what is fixed and certain, are equivalent to "*notwithstanding*," and consequently the verb follows in the indicative; as, "Though he *was* rich, yet for yoursakes he became poor."

392. RULE I. *Lest, and that, annexed to a command, require the subjunctive mood; as, Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. Take heed that thou speak not to Jacob, either good or bad.*

393. RULE II. *If, with but following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mood; as, If he do but touch the hills, they shall smoke. When future time is not expressed, the indicative ought to be used.*

394. The subjunctive *were, wert*, is used to express a wish or desire; as, I wish that I *were* at home. O that they *were* wise.

EXERCISES.

If a man smites his servant and he die, he shall surely be put to death. If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind. Though he be high, he hath respect to the lowly. If thou live virtuously, thou art happy. If he does promise, he will certainly perform. O that his heart was tender. If he is at home to-morrow, give him the letter. O, that thou wast as my brother!

(S. Rule I.) Despise not any condition, lest it happens to be thy own. Let him that is sanguine take heed lest he miscarries. See that thou speakest truth.

(S. Rule II.) If he is but discreet, he will succeed. If he be but in health, I am content. If he does but intimate his desire, it will produce obedience.

395. § 69. RULE XX. 1. *Conjunctions connect words or sentences (241).*

2. *Conjunctions couple the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns; as, Do good, and seek peace. He and I are well.*

396. *Rem. 1.* Verbs in the same mood and tense, connected by a conjunction, must also be in the same form. For the different forms of the verb, see § 27.

397. *Rem. 2.* When conjunctions connect different moods and tenses; or when a contrast is stated with *but, not, though, &c.*, the nominative is frequently repeated; as, You can not ride, but *you* may walk.

Note. This is to be regarded only as a general direction, and is violated nearly as often as it is observed.

398. *Rem. 3.* After verbs of *doubting, fearing and denying*, the conjunction *that* should be used, and not *lest, but, but that*; as, You do not doubt *that* he is honest; They feared *that* they would not return; You do not deny *that* he has some ability. *That* is frequently understood; as, We were desirous (*that*) you would return.

399. *Rem. 4.* The relative usually follows *than* in the objective case, even when the nominative goes before; as, "Alfred, than *whom* a greater king never reigned." This anomaly it is difficult to explain. Most probably *than* at first had the force of a preposition, which it now retains only when followed by the relative.

EXERCISES.

1. He reads and wrote well. Anger glances into the breast of a wise man but will rest only in the bosom of fools. If he understand the subject and attends to it, he can scarcely fail of success. Professing regard and to act differently marks a base mind.

2. He or me must go. Neither he nor her can attend. You and us enjoy many privileges. My father and him were very intimate. He is taller than me. I am not so wise as him. She was six years older than me. You may as lawfully preach as them that do.

Rem. 1. We often overlook the blessings we possess, and are searching after those which are out of our reach. Did he not tell thee his fault, and entreated thee to forgive him?

2. Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue. She was proud though now humble. He is not rich but respectable.

3. We can not question but this confederacy must have been a source of friendship and attachment. We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened.

400. § 70. RULE XXI. *Some conjunctions and adverbs have their corresponding connectives ; thus,*

Neither requires *nor* after it; as, *Neither* he *nor* his brother was in.

Though, — *yet*; as, *Though* he was rich, *yet* for our sakes, &c.

Whether, — *or*; *Whether* he go *or* stay.

Either, — *or*; I will *either* write *or* send.

As, — *as*; (expressing equality) Mine is *as* good *as* yours.

As, — *so*; (expressing equality) *As* the stars, *so* shall thy seed be

So, — *as*; (with a negative, expressing inequality) He is not *so* wise *as* his brother.

So, — *that*; (expressing consequence) I am *so* weak *that* I can not walk.

Not only, — *but also*; *Not only* his property, *but also* his life was in danger.

If, — *then*; (in reasoning) *If* he can do it, *then* he will do it.

Note. *As* and *so*, in either member of a comparison, are properly adverbs, § 24, 4.

Note. The Poets frequently use *Or—or*, for *Either—or*; and *Nor—nor*, for *Neither—nor*. In prose, *Not—nor*, is often used for *Neither—nor*. The *yet* after *though* is often properly suppressed. *Or* does not require *either* before, when the one word is a mere explanation of the other; as, It is six feet, *or* one fathom deep. In other cases, when *either* is not used, it may be supplied.

EXERCISES.

It is neither cold or hot. It is so clear as I need not explain it. The relations are so uncertain as that they require much examination. The one is equally deserving as the other. I must be so candid to own that I have been mistaken. He would not do it himself, nor let me do it. He was as angry as he could not speak. So as thy days, so shall thy strength be. Though he slay me, so will I trust in him. He must go himself, or send his servant. There is no condition so secure as it can not admit of change. He is not as eminent and as much esteemed as he thinks himself to be. Neither despise the poor, or envy the rich; for the one dieth so as the other. As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written. His raiment was so white as snow. He must be as candid as to say so. There was no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequences. The dog in the manger would not eat the hay himself, nor suffer the ox to do it. He was so fat, he could hardly walk. Neither despise or oppose what thou dost not understand.

401. § 71. RULE XXII. *The comparative degree and the pronoun other require than after them, and such requires as ; as, Greater than I ; No other than he ; Such as do well.*

NOTE. *Such*, meaning a consequence, or so great, requires *that* after it.

402. S. RULE. *When two objects are compared, the comparative is generally used ; but when more than two, the superlative ; as, James is older than John. Mary is the wisest of them all.*

403. Rem. 1. Sometimes, however, the superlative is used when only two objects are compared, viz. when it is more agreeable to the ear, and when it can not injure the sense ; as, He is the *weakest* of the two.

404. Rem. 2. A comparison in which more than two are concerned, may be expressed by the *comparative* as well as by the *superlative*, and in some cases better ; but the comparative considers the objects compared as belonging to different classes, while the superlative compares them as included in *one* class. The comparative is used thus : " Greece was more polished than any *other* nation of antiquity." Here Greece stands by herself, as opposed to the *other* nations of antiquity. She was none of the *other nations* : she was more polished than they. The same idea is expressed by the superlative when the word *other* is left out : thus, " Greece was the most polished nation of antiquity." Here, to Greece is assigned the highest place in the class of objects among which she is numbered—the nations of antiquity : she is one of them. This distinction should be carefully observed. The comparative is sometimes used in the same way ; as, He is the taller of the two.

EXERCISES.

He has little more of the scholar besides the name. Be ready to succour such persons who need thy assistance. They had no sooner risen, but they applied themselves to their studies. These savage people seemed to have no other element but war. Such men that act treacherously, ought to be avoided. He gained nothing farther by his speech, but only to be commended for his eloquence. This is none other but the gate of Paradise. Such sharp replies that cost him his life. To trust in him, is no more but to acknowledge his power.

(S. R.) James is the wisest of the two. Of the three, Jane is the weaker. [Rem. 2.] Chimborazo is higher than any other mountain in Europe. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. I understood him the best of all others who spoke on the subject. Solomon was wiser than any of the ancient kings. China has a greater population than any nation on earth.

405. § 72. RULE XXIII. *Double comparatives and superlatives are improper ; thus, better, best, not more better, most best.*

Rem. The double comparative *lesser*, however, is sanctioned by good authority ; as, "*Lesser Asia*," "Every *lesser* thing."—*N. Y. Review*.

Obs. It is improper to compare adjectives whose signification does not admit of increase or diminution [§ 13, Obs. 4]. Of this kind are *true*, *perfect*, *universal*, *chief*, *extreme*, *supreme*, &c., which have in themselves a superlative sense. When comparison of these and similar words is admitted, as is sometimes done (§ 13, Obs. 4 Rem.), they must be understood in a limited sense. Such adjectives as *superior*, *inferior*, etc., though they imply comparison, are not in the comparative degree, and are never construed as such, but have to after them.

EXERCISES.

It argued the most sincerest candor to make such an acknowledgment. After the most strictest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. He always possessed a more serener temper. It is more easier to build two chimneys, than to maintain one. The tongue is like a race horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries. The nightingale's voice is the most sweetest.

His assertion was most untrue. His work was perfect, his brother's more perfect, and his father's the most perfect of all. Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man, and should be his chiefest desire. His most extreme vanity renders him most supremely ridiculous. This is more inferior than that, though it is more superior than many others.

Promiscuous. The great power and force of custom forms another argument against bad company. And Joshua he shall go over before thee. If thou be the king of the Jews, save thyself. The people therefore that was with him when he raised Lazarus out of his grave, bare record. Public spirit is a more universal principle than a sense of honour. I see you have a new pair of gloves [§ 86, 7]. Five years interest were demanded. In all his works is sprightliness and vigour. The returns of kindness is sweet, and there are neither honour nor virtue in resisting them.

How rarely reason guides the stubborn choice;
Rule the bold hand, or prompt the suppliant voice.

406. § 73. RULE XXIV. 1. *Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs* (§ 33).

2. *Adverbs should not be used as adjectives*; thus "Thine *often* infirmities," should be "Thy *frequent* infirmities."

407. Rem. 1. *From*, strictly speaking, should not be used before *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, because it is implied. Custom, however, has so far sanctioned the violation of this rule, that a strict adherence to it would now appear stiff and affected.

408. Rem. 2. After verbs of *motion*, *hither*, *thither*, and *whither*, are now used only on solemn occasions. In other cases, the adverbs *here*, *there*, and *where*, are employed; as, He came *here*; We rode *there*.

409. Rem. 3. *Where* should not be used for *in which*, unless the reference is to *place*; thus, "A protestation *where*," should be "A protestation *in which*." *So* is often used to represent an adjective, a noun, or a whole sentence; as, They are *rich*, we are not *so*. *He is a good scholar*, and I told you *so*.

410. Rem. 4. The adverbs *now*, *then*, *when*, *where*, in such phrases as *till now*, *till then*, *since when*, *to where*, &c., are sometimes used by good writers as nouns. This, however, is inaccurate, and should not be imitated.

411. Rem. 5. *There*, properly an adverb of place, is often used as a mere introductory expletive to the verb, when the nominative follows it; as, "*There* are men who can not read;" "*There* came to the beach." (See § 34, 8.)

412. Rem. 6. *Only*, *solely*, *chiefly*, *merely*, *too*, *also*, and perhaps a few others, are sometimes joined to substantives; as, Not *only* the men, but the women *also* were innocent.

EXERCISES.

They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war. He was befriended by the then reigning Duke. Some of my then hearers urged me to publish these lectures. Our friends arrived safely.

Rem. 1. From whence come ye? He departed from thence into a desert place. I will send thee far from hence to the Gentiles. Where art thou gone? The city is near, O let me escape there. Where I am, there ye can not come. From whence we may likewise date the period of this event. He walked thither in less than an hour.

3. He drew up a petition where he represented his own merit. He went to London last year, since when I have not seen him. The situation where I found him

413. § 74. RULE XXV. *Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the simple form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form; as, He is very attentive, behaves well, and is much esteemed.*

414. Obs. 1. This is to be considered only as a general rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed, no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. That order is the best which conveys the meaning with most precision. In order to this, the adverb is sometimes placed before the verb, or at some distance after it. *Never, often, always, sometimes*, generally precede the verb. *Not*, with the present participle, should generally be placed before it. *Enough* follows the adjective, and sometimes both follow the noun; thus, a solid *enough* reason, or, a reason *solid enough*.

415. Obs. 2. The improper position of the adverb *only*, often occasions ambiguity. This will generally be avoided when it refers to a sentence or clause, by placing it at the beginning of that sentence or clause; when it refers to a predicate, by placing it before the predicated term; and when it refers to a subject, by placing it after its name or description; as, "*Only* acknowledge thine iniquity;" "The thoughts of his heart are *only* evil;" "Take nothing for your journey but a staff *only*." These observations will generally be applicable to the words *merely, solely, chiefly, first, at least*, and perhaps to a few others.

416 Obs. 3. *Ever* and *never* are sometimes improperly confounded.

EXERCISES.

We should not be overcome totally by present events. He unaffectedly and forcibly spoke, and was heard attentively by the whole assembly. It can not be impertinent or ridiculous, therefore, to remonstrate. Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also. In the proper disposition of adverbs, the ear carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense.

(Obs. 1.) The women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily to assist the government. Having not known, or having not considered the measures proposed, he failed of success. He was determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends.

(Obs. 2.) Theism can only be opposed to polytheism. By greatness, I do not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a whole view. Only you have I known, of all the nations of the earth. In using every exertion in our power for the public good, we only discharge our duty.

417. § 75. RULE XXVI. *Two negatives in the same sentence are improper, unless we mean to affirm; thus, "I can not by no means allow it," should be, "I cannot by any"—or "I can by no means allow it."*

The reason of this rule is, that one negative destroys another, or is equivalent to an affirmative.

418. *Rem. 1.* Sometimes two negatives are intended to affirm; and in this case, if one of them, such as *dis-*, *in-*, *im-*, *un-*, &c. is prefixed to another word, a pleasing and delicate variety of expression is produced; as, "Nor was the king unacquainted with his designs," i. e. he "was acquainted with them." But if the negative consists of two separate and detached words, the expression is generally harsh and inelegant; as, "Nor have I no money which I can spare," i. e. "I have money which I can spare."

419. *Rem. 2.* In sentences containing double negatives, the intervention of *only*, which is equivalent to a distinct clause, preserves the negation; as, "He was not *only* illiberal, but he was covetous."

420. *Note.* The English language in this respect agrees with the Latin, but differs from the Greek and French, in both of which, two negatives with the same subject render the negation stronger.

EXERCISES.

I can not drink no more. He can not do nothing. He will never be no taller. Covet neither riches nor honors, nor no such perishing things. Do not interrupt me thyself, nor let no one disturb me. I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present nor at any other time. I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend. There can not be nothing more insignificant than vanity. Nor is danger apprehended in such a government, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes. Never no imitator came up to his author.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

James and I am cousins. Thy father's merits sets thee forth to view. That it is our duty to be pious, admit not of any doubt. If he becomes rich, he may be less industrious. It was wrote extempore. Romulus, which founded Rome, killed his brother Remus. He involved in a troublesome lawsuit, a friend which had always supported him. Who of you convinceth me of sin. I treat you as a boy who love to learn, and are ambitious of receiving instruction.

421. § 76. RULE XXVII. *Appropriate prepositions must be used before names of places; thus,*

To—is used after a verb of motion; as, He *went* to Spain. But it is omitted before *home*; as, He *went home* yesterday (307).

In—is used before names of countries and large cities; as, He lives *in* Albany, *in* the State of New-York. But *at* is used before the names of places and large cities, after the verbs *touch*, *arrive*, *land*, and frequently after the verb *to be*; as, He *arrived at* Liverpool—*touched at* New-York—*landed at* New-Orleans. I *was at* New-York.

At—is used before the names of *houses*, *towns*, and *foreign cities*; as, He *is at* home. He *resides at* the Mansion House, *at* Saratoga-Springs.

422 Rem. 1. One inhabitant speaking of another's residence, says, "He *lives in* State-street;" or, if the word *number* be used, "*at* No. — State-street.

423. Rem. 2. *Interjections* sometimes have an objective after them, but they never govern it: it is always governed by a transitive active verb, or preposition understood; as, "Ah me!" i. e. "Ah! what has happened to *me*." The case after an interjection will always have to depend on the supplement to be made: it will generally, however, be the objective of the *first* personal pronoun, and the nominative of the *second*; as, "Ah *me*! O *thou* wretch!" (§ 80, Rule 2).

EXERCISES.

They have just arrived in Rochester, and are going to Buffalo. They will reside two months at England. I have been to London after having resided in France, and I now live at New-York. I was in the place appointed long before any of the rest. We touched in Liverpool on our way for New-York. I have been to home for a few days. We have been to home since morning. I will go to home to-morrow.

[Rem. 1, 2.] He boards in No. 12, Dean street. He had lodgings at George's Square. Ah! unhappy thee, who art deaf to the calls of duty and honor. Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings. Woe's I, for I am a man of unclean lips.

Promiscuous. He has been expecting of us some time. Young persons need not be initiated in the language of controversy. His quitting of the army was unexpected. I seen him yesterday. If there was no cowardice, there would be little insolence. I was rejoiced at the news. I shall do my friends no wrong, for I have none to lament me. They were descended from a family that came over with the Conqueror.

424. § 77. RULE XXVIII. *Certain words and phrases must be followed by appropriate prepositions ; such as,*

- | | |
|--|--|
| Abhorrence <i>of</i> . | Dissent <i>from</i> . |
| Accommodate <i>to</i> . | Eager <i>in, on, for, after</i> . |
| Accord <i>with</i> . | Engage <i>in</i> a work— <i>for</i> a time. |
| Accuse <i>of</i> . | Equal <i>to, with</i> . |
| Acquit <i>of</i> . | Exception <i>from, to</i> . |
| Adapted <i>to</i> . | Expert <i>in</i> (before a noun),— <i>at</i> (before an active participle). |
| Agreeable <i>to</i> . | Fall <i>under</i> . Obs. 1. |
| Ask <i>of</i> a person, <i>for</i> a thing, <i>after</i> what we wish to hear of. | Familiar <i>to, with</i> . A thing is familiar <i>to</i> us; we, <i>with</i> it. |
| Averse <i>to or from</i> . | Free <i>from</i> . |
| Believe <i>in, sometimes on</i> . | Glad <i>of</i> something gained by ourselves,— <i>at</i> something that befalls another. |
| Bestow <i>upon, on</i> . | Incorporate (active transitive) <i>into</i> ; (intrans. or passive) <i>with</i> . |
| Betray <i>to</i> a person— <i>into</i> a thing. | Independent <i>of</i> . |
| Boast <i>of</i> . See Obs. 3. | Indulge <i>with</i> what is not habitual, <i>in</i> what is habitual. |
| Call <i>on</i> a person—at a place. | Insist <i>upon</i> . |
| Change (exchange) <i>for, (alter) to, into</i> . | Intrude <i>into</i> an enclosed place, <i>upon</i> what is not enclosed |
| Charge a person <i>with</i> a thing, a thing <i>on</i> an agent. | Made <i>of</i> . |
| Compare <i>with, in</i> respect of quality— <i>to, for</i> illustration. | Marry <i>to</i> . |
| Compliance <i>with</i> . | Martyr <i>for</i> . |
| Concur <i>with</i> a person; <i>in</i> a measure; <i>to</i> an effect. | Need <i>of</i> . |
| Confide <i>in</i> . | Observation <i>of</i> . |
| Conformable <i>to, with</i> . | Prejudice <i>against</i> . |
| Consonant <i>to</i> . | Prevail (to persuade) <i>with, on, upon</i> —(to overcome) <i>over, against</i> . |
| Conversant <i>with</i> men—in things; <i>about</i> and <i>among</i> are less proper. | Profit <i>by</i> . |
| Copy <i>from</i> a thing,— <i>after</i> a person. | Protect others <i>from</i> —ourselves <i>against</i> . |
| Dependent <i>upon, on</i> . | Provide <i>with or for</i> . |
| Derogative <i>from</i> . | Reconcile <i>to</i> friendship— <i>with</i> (to make consistent). |
| Derogatory <i>to</i> . | Reduce (to subdue) <i>under</i> ,—in other cases, <i>to; as, to</i> powder. |
| Die <i>of</i> disease— <i>by</i> an instrument or violence. | Regard <i>for; in</i> regard <i>to</i> . |
| Differ <i>from</i> . | Replete <i>with</i> . |
| Difficulty <i>in</i> . | Resemblance <i>to</i> . |
| Diminish <i>from</i> —diminution <i>of</i> . | Resolve <i>on</i> . |
| Disappointed <i>in or of</i> (§ 86, 5). | Rule <i>over</i> . |
| Disapprove <i>of</i> . See Obs. 3. | |
| Discourage <i>from</i> . | |
| Discouragement <i>to</i> . | |

RULE XXVIII. *continued.*

Sick <i>of</i> .	Unite (transitive) <i>to</i> ; (intransitive) <i>with</i> .
Sink <i>into, beneath</i> .	Value <i>upon</i> or <i>on</i> .
Swerve <i>from</i> .	Vest <i>with</i> a thing possessed— <i>in</i> the possessor.
Taste <i>for</i> or <i>of</i> (§ 86, 6).	Wait <i>upon, on</i> .
Tax <i>with</i> (e. g. a crime) — <i>for</i> the state.	Worthy <i>of</i> . Obs. 3.
Think <i>of</i> or <i>on</i> .	
True <i>to</i> .	

425.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The particular preposition which it is proper to use, often depends as much upon what follows as upon what goes before, thus, we say, To fall *from* a height—*into* a pit—*to* work—*upon* an enemy.

2. *Into* is used only after verbs of motion, and denotes *entrance*. *In* is used when motion or rest in a place is signified; as, They went *into* a carriage, and travelled *in* it ten miles.

3. *Boast, approve, and disapprove*, are often used without *of*. *Worthy* has sometimes *of* following it, and sometimes not.

4. The same preposition that follows the *verb* or *adjective* usually follows the *noun* derived from it, and vice versa; as, Confide *in*—confidence *in*—confident *in*.

EXERCISES.

He was very eager of recommending him to his fellow citizens. He found great difficulty of writing. He accused the ministers for having betrayed the Dutch. This is certainly not a change to the better. The English were a very different people then to what they are now. The history of Peter is agreeable with the sacred text. It was intrusted to persons on whom Congress could confide. I completely dissent with the examiner. Nothing shall make me swerve out of the path of duty. There was no water, and he died for thirst. We can safely confide on none but the truly good. Many have profited from good advice. The error was occasioned by compliance to earnest entreaty. This is a principle in unison to our nature [Obs. 4]. This remark is in accordance to truth. His parents think on him and his improvements with pleasure and hope.

EXERCISES ON RULE XXVIII. *continued.*

You have bestowed your favors to the most deserving persons. The wisest persons need not think it any diminution to their greatness, or derogation of their sufficiency, to rely upon counsel. It is consonant with our nature. He had no regard after his father's commands. There was a prejudice to his cause. There is no need for it. Reconciling himself with the king. They have no resemblance with each other. Upon such occasions as fell into their cognizance. I am engaged with preparing for a journey. We profit from experience. He is resolved of going to the Persian court. Expert about deceiving. The Romans reduced the world to their own power. He provided them in every thing. He seems to have a taste of such studies. You are conversant with that science. He is more conversant in men of science than in politicians. These are exceptions of the general rule. He died for thirst. He died of the sword. He is glad of calamities. She is glad at his company.

He saw your brother, and inquired from him for his friend's health. He was charged of being accessary to the murder. This is the first time we have been indulged in such a luxury. He indulges himself with the most pernicious habits. I hope I do not intrude into you. He will suffer no one to intrude upon his house. Is that a copy after nature? If you copy from your father's example, you will do well. He has never been reconciled with his lot. How can such conduct be reconciled to the principles he professes? It is proper that the people should be taxed with the support of government. Can not you prevail over your father to pay us a visit? The enemy prevailed upon us by superior force. Take care to protect yourself from the dangers which threaten you. The walls protected us against the fire of the enemy. He has now become familiar to the rules of Grammar. Your countenance is familiar with me. The office of judge and advocate should not be vested with the same person.

426. § 78. RULE XXIX. *In the use of verbs and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed; as, "I have known him these many years; not, "I know him (or I knew him) these many years."*

427. *Rem.* The particular tense necessary to be used must depend upon the sense, and no rules can be given that will apply to all cases. But it may be proper to observe,

428. *Obs.* 1. An observation which is always true, must be expressed in the present tense; as, The stoics believed that "all crimes are equal" (§ 24, I. 2).

429. *Obs.* 2. The present-perfect, and not the present tense, should be used in connection with words denoting an *extent* of time continued to the present; thus, "They *continue* with me now three days," should be, "*have continued*," etc. (§ 24, II. 1).

430. *Obs.* 3. The present-perfect tense ought never to be used in connection with words which express past time; thus, "I *have formerly* mentioned his attachment to study," should be, "I *formerly* mentioned," etc. (§ 24, III. 1).

431. *Obs.* 4. The present and past of the auxiliaries, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, should never be associated in the same sentence; and care must be taken that the subsequent verb be expressed in the same tense with the antecedent verb; thus, "I *may* or *can* do it now, if I *choose*;" "I *might* or *could* do it now, if I *chose*;" "I *shall* or *will* do it, when I *can*;" "I *may* do it, if I *can*;" "I once *could* do it, but I *would* not;" "I *would* have done it then, but I *could* not." "I *mention* it to him, that he *may* stop if he *choose*;" "I *mentioned* it to him, that he *might* stop if he *chose*;" "I *have mentioned* it to him, that he *may* stop;" "I *had mentioned* it to him, that he *might* stop;" "I *had mentioned* it to him, that he *might have stopped*, *had he chosen*."

432. NOTE 1. When *should* is used instead of *ought*, to express *present* duty (172), it may be followed by the present; as, "You *should* study that you *may* become learned."

433. NOTE 2. The verb *had* is sometimes used for *would*; thus, "I *had* rather do it," for "I *would* rather do it." This should not be imitated.

434. NOTE 3. *Would* and *should* are sometimes, in common language, used as if they were almost expletives; thus, "It *would* seem," for "It *seems*."

435. *Obs.* 5. The indicative present is frequently used after the words *when*, *till*, *before*, *as soon as*, *after*, to express the relative time of a future action (§ 24, I. 5); as, "When he

comes, he will be welcome." When placed before the present-perfect indicative, these words denote the completion of a future action or event ; as, "He will never be better, till he *has* felt the pangs of poverty."

436. *Obs.* 6. A verb in the infinitive mood must be in the *present tense*, when it expresses what is *contemporary* in point of time with its governing verb, or *subsequent* to it; as, "He appeared *to be* a man of letters;" "The Apostles were determined *to preach* the gospel."

437. *Obs.* 7. But the *perfect* infinitive must be used to express what is *antecedent* to the time of the governing verb; as, "Romulus is said *to have founded* Rome."

EXERCISES.

1. The doctor said, in his lecture, that fever always produced thirst. The philosopher said that heat always expanded metals. He said that truth was immutable.

2. I know the family more than twenty years. I am now at school six months. My brother was sick four weeks, and is no better. He tells lies long enough.

3. He has lately lost an only son. He has been formerly very disorderly. I have been at London last year, and seen the king last summer. I have once or twice last week told the story to our friend.

4. I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular. Ye will not come to me that ye might have life. Be wise and good that you might be happy. He was told his danger, that he may shun it.

[Note 1.] We should respect those persons, because they continued long attached to us. He should study diligently, that he might become learned. 2. I had rather go now than afterwards. He had better do it soon.

5. We shall welcome him when he shall arrive. As soon as he shall return, we will recommence our studies. A prisoner is not accounted guilty, till he be convicted.

6. From the conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of learning. Our friends intended to have met us. He was afraid he would have died.

7. Kirtall Abbey, now in ruins, appears to be an extensive building. Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, is said to be born in the 926th year before Christ.

438. § 79. RULE XXX. *When a member of a sentence refers to two different clauses, it should be equally applicable to both; as, He has not been, and can not be, censured for such conduct.*

439. This rule is often violated in sentences in which there are two comparisons of a different nature and government; thus, "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio." Here, *as Cinthio* is applicable to the clause *so much admired*, but can not be connected with *more beloved*. In such sentences, the proper way is, to complete the construction of the first member, and leave that of the second understood; as, "He was more beloved than Cinthio, but not so much admired" (*as Cinthio*).

440. A proper choice of words, and a perspicuous arrangement should be carefully attended to.

EXERCISES.

This dedication may serve for almost any book that has, or ever shall be published. Will it be urged that these books are as old, or even older than tradition. He is more bold and active, but not so wise and studious as his companion. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more valuable, than knowledge. No person was ever so perplexed, or sustained the mortifications as he has done to-day. Neither has he, nor any other persons suspected so much dissimulation. The intentions of some of these philosophers, nay, of many, might and probably were good. The reward is due, and it has already, or will hereafter be given to him. This book is preferable, and cheaper than the other. He either has, or will obtain the prize. He acted both suitably and consistently with his profession. The first proposal was essentially different, and inferior to the second. He contrives better, but does not execute so well as his brother. There are principles in man which ever have, and ever will incline him to offend. The greatest masters of critical learning differ and contend against one another. The winter has not, and probably will not be so severe as was expected. He is more friendly in his disposition, but not so distinguished for talents, as his brother.

441. § 80. RULE XXXI. *A substantive whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative. This occurs under the four following*

SPECIAL RULES.

442. RULE 1. *A substantive with a participle, whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute; as, "He being gone, only two remain."*

443. RULE 2. *A person or thing addressed, without a verb or governing word, is put in the nominative independent; as, "I remain, dear sir, yours truly;" "Plato, thou reasonest well."*

444. RULE 3. *A substantive, unconnected in mere exclamation, is put in the nominative independent; as, "O the times! O the manners!"*

445. RULE 4. *A substantive, used by pleonasm before an affirmation, is put in the nominative independent; as, "The boy, oh! where was he?"*

446. Rem. 1. Under this rule a mistake can be made only in the case of pronouns.

447. Rem. 2. The substantive is sometimes understood; as, Generally speaking, i. e. We. His conduct, viewing it in the most favorable light, reflects discredit on his character, i. e. we, men, or a person viewing it, &c.

EXERCISES.

He made as wise proverbs as any body since, him only excepted. Them descending, the ladder fell. Whom being dead, we shall come. But them being absent, we can not come to a determination.

————— Whose grey top
Shall tremble, him descending.

The bleating sheep with my complaints agree;
Them parched with heat, and me inflamed by thee.

Her quick relapsing to her former state,
With boding fears approach the sewing train.

There all thy gifts and graces we display;
Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

So great Æneas rushes to the fight,
Sprung from a god, and more than mortal bold,
Him fresh in youth, and me in arms grown old.

448. § 81. RULE XXXII. 1. *The article A or AN is put before common nouns in the singular number, when used INDEFINITELY*; as, "*A man*;" "*An apple*;" that is, "*any man*;" "*any apple*."

2. *The article THE is put before common nouns, either singular or plural, when used DEFINITELY*; as, "*The sun rises*." "*The city of New-York*."

449. It is impossible to give a precise rule for the use of the article in every case. The best general rule is to observe what the sense requires. The following usages may be noticed.

1. The article is omitted before a noun that stands for a *whole species*; as, *Man* is mortal, and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, etc. Some nouns denoting the species, have the article always prefixed; as, *The dog* is a more grateful animal than *the cat*. *The lion* is a noble animal.

2. The last of two nouns after a comparative, should have no article when they both refer to one person or thing; as, He is a better reader than *writer*.

3. When two or more adjectives, or epithets, belong to the *same* subject, the article should be placed before the first, and omitted before the rest; as, *A red and white rose*, i. e. a rose, some parts of which are red, and others white. But when the adjectives or epithets belong to different subjects, the article should be prefixed to each; as, *a red and a white rose*, i. e. a red rose and a white rose. "*Johnson, the bookseller and stationer*," indicates one person; "*Johnson the bookseller, and the stationer*," would indicate two different persons. App. XXI.

NOTE. The same remark may be made respecting the demonstrative pronouns; as, "*That great and good man*," means only *one* man. *That great and that good man*, means *two*; the one great, and the other good.

4. A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made, by the use or omission of the article *a* before the words *few*, *little*. If I say, "*He behaved with a little reverence*," the expression is positive, and implies a degree of praise. But if I say, "*He behaved with little reverence*," the expression is negative, and implies a degree of blame.

5. *A* has sometimes the meaning of *every* or *each*; as, *twelve shillings a dozen*, *two hundred pounds a year*; i. e. every dozen, every year.

6. The antecedent to a restrictive clause is preceded by the definite article; as "*All the pupils that were present did well*."

7. *The* is sometimes used before the comparative and the superlative degrees both of adverbs and adjectives; as, *The more I study grammar, the better I like it*

RULE XXXII. *Continued.*

EXERCISES

ON THE IMPROPER USE AND OMISSION OF THE ARTICLES.

1. Reason was given to a man to control his passions. The gold is corrupting. A man is the noblest work of the creation. Wisest and best men are sometimes betrayed into errors. We must act our part with a constancy, though reward of our constancy be distant. There are some evils of life which equally affect prince and people. The purity has its seat in the heart, but extends its influence over so much of outward conduct as to form the great and material part of a character. At worst I could incur but a gentle reprimand. The profligate man is seldom or never found to be the good husband, the good father, or the beneficent neighbour.

2. A man may be a better soldier than a logician. There is much truth in the old adage, that fire is a better servant than a master. He is not so good a poet as a historian.

3. Thomson the watchmaker, and the jeweller from London, was of the party. A red and a white flag was displayed from the tower. A beautiful stream flows between the new and old mansion. A hot and cold spring were found in the same neighbourhood. The young and old man seem to be on good terms. The bill equally concerns the manufacturer and consumer.

4. He has been much censured for paying a little attention to his business. So bold a breach of order called for little severity in punishing the offender.

5. A shilling for every dozen is a moderate price. I would not undertake to walk twenty miles each day for three months. A guinea every week.

6. Persons who suffered by this calamity, have been much commiserated. Foreign travel, and things which he has seen, have enlarged his views. The proprietors are responsible for all parcels that are committed to their care. All persons who were consulted, were of this opinion. Members who do not appear, must be fined.

450 § 82. XXXIII. *An ellipsis or omission of words is admissible, when they can be supplied in the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense.* Thus, instead of saying, "He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man;" we say, "He was a learned, wise, and good man."

451. *Obs.* It may be regarded as a rule proper to be kept steadily in view, that the fewer the words by which we can express our ideas, the better, provided the meaning be clearly brought out.

452. *Rem.* The auxiliaries of the compound tenses are often used alone to represent the verb; as, "We have done it, but thou *hast* not;" i. e. thou hast not *done* it.

453. The verb *to be*, with its subject, in dependent clauses, is often omitted after the connectives *if, though, yet, when, &c.*; as, "Study, if [*it is*] neglected, becomes irksome."—"Though [*he was*] poor, he was honest."

EXERCISES.

He sent me the books and the papers which he promised. He has a house and a garden in the country. These counsels were the dictates of virtue and the dictates of true honor. Such conduct is contrary to the laws of God, and to the laws of man. His crimes brought him into extreme distress and into extreme perplexity. He was blessed with an affectionate father and an affectionate mother. His reputation and his estate are both lost by gambling. He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent. This is the man whom we met, and whom we invited to our house. Genuine virtue supposes our benevolence and our usefulness to be strengthened and to be confirmed by principle. Perseverance in laudable pursuits will reward our toils, and will produce effects beyond our expectation. We often commend imprudently as well as censure imprudently. Changes are often taking place in men and in manners, in opinions and in customs.

[*Rem.*] He regards the truth, but thou dost not regard it. They must be punished, and they shall be punished. We succeeded, but they did not succeed.

454. § 83. RULE XXXIV. *An ellipsis is not allowable when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety; as, We are inclined to flatter (those) who flatter us.*

455. *Rem. 1.* In general, no word should be omitted that is necessary to the full and correct construction, or even harmony of a sentence. Articles, pronouns, and prepositions, should always be repeated when the words with which they stand connected are used emphatically. Even nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs, must often, under such circumstances, be repeated; as, "Not only *the year*, but *the day* and *the hour* were appointed."

456. *Rem. 2.* It is generally improper (except in poetry) to omit the antecedent to a relative; and always, to omit a relative when of the nominative case.

457. *Rem. 3.* The article should be repeated, when a different form of it is required; as, "A horse and *an* ass."

EXERCISES.

I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me. His honor, interest, religion, were all embarked in this undertaking. The more I see of his conduct, I like him better. It is not only the duty, but interest of young persons to be studious and diligent. Without firmness, nothing that is great can be undertaken; that is difficult or hazardous, accomplished. That species of commerce will produce great gain or loss. Many days or even weeks pass away unimproved. The people of this country possess a healthy climate and soil. I have bought a house and orchard. His conduct is not scandalous, and that is the best can be said of it. The captain had several men died in his ship. They enjoy a free constitution and laws. That is a property most men have, or at least may attain. *A noble spirit disdaineth the malice of fortune; his greatness of soul is not to be cast down. Charles was a man of learning, knowledge, and benevolence; and what is more, a true christian. The team consisted of a black and white horse. A beautiful round and square table were exhibited.

* "A noble spirit," &c., should be, "A man of a noble spirit." It would be improper to speak of the *soul* of a *spirit*.

§ 84. SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

458. SYNTACTICAL PARSING includes *Etymological*, and adds to it a statement of the relation in which words stand to each other, and the rules according to which they are combined in phrases and sentences.

459. The method of parsing each part of speech *etymologically*, has been pointed out under each; viz. Nouns, No. 89; Article, under 97; Adjective, 110; Pronouns, viz. personal, 115; relative, 123; adjective, 145; Verb, 205; Adverb, 231; Prepositions, 237; Interjection, 240; and Conjunctions, 248. Also, specimens of Etymological parsing are given, § 39. The method of parsing each part of speech syntactically will be seen from the following

SPECIMEN OF SYNTACTICAL PARSING.*

460. PSALM CXI. 10. "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom; and a good understanding have all they that do his commandments: His praise endureth forever."

461. This sentence contains all the parts of speech except the interjection, and may be analyzed thus:

"The fear of the Lord," etc. This is a compound sentence, consisting of the three following parts, viz.

1. "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."

This is a simple sentence.

The logical subject is, *The fear of the Lord*

The logical predicate is, *is the beginning of wisdom*

The grammatical subject is, *fear*. It is limited by the adjunct, *of the Lord*, and shown to be limited by the article *the* (App. VII).

The grammatical predicate is, *is beginning*, in which *is* is the verb or copula, and *beginning*, the attribute. It is limited by the adjunct, *of wisdom*, and shown to be limited by *the*.

*In parsing nouns, pronouns, and verbs, it is quite unnecessary to repeat the words *gender*, *number*, *mood*, *tense*; thus, masculine *gender*, singular *number*, &c.: the meaning being sufficiently indicated by the terms *masculine*, *feminine*, *neuter*, *singular*, *plural*, *indicative*, *potential*, &c.; *present*, *past*, *future*, &c.; and it has the advantage of saving much time. For the same reason, it may be proper to omit the terms, *proper* and *common*, before nouns, and the mention of

2. "And a good understanding have all they that do his commandments."

This is a compound sentence, connected with the preceding by *and*; it contains one leading and one dependent clause, connected by *that*.

The independent clause is, "All they have a good understanding."

The dependent clause is, "that do his commandments."

In the first or leading clause,

The logical subject is, *all they*.

The logical predicate is, *have a good understanding*.

The grammatical subject is, *they*, qualified by *all*.

The grammatical predicate is, *have*, modified by its object, *understanding*, which is qualified by its adjective, *good*, and shewn to be indefinite by the article *a*.

In the dependent clause,

The logical subject is the relative *that*, which connects the dependent with the antecedent clause.

The logical predicate is, *do his commandments*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *do*, modified by its object, *commandments*, which again is limited by the possessive, *his*.

3. "His praise endureth forever."

This is a simple sentence, of which

The logical subject is, *his praise*.

The logical predicate is, *endureth forever*.

The grammatical subject is, *praise*, qualified by *his*.

The grammatical predicate is, *endureth*, modified, in respect of time, by *forever*.

462. The sentence thus analyzed, may be parsed syntactically as follows :

The..... is the definite article; it belongs to *fear*, and shews it to be limited.
RULE XXXII. 2. *The article THE, &c.*

fear..... is a noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, the subject of *is*. § 47
RULE I. *The subject of a verb, &c.*

of..... is a preposition, which shows the relation between *Lord*, the subsequent, and *fear*, the antecedent term.

the is the definite article; it belongs to *Lord*, and shews it to be definite; it is rendered so by eminence. RULE XXXII. 2.

Lord is a noun, masculine, in the objective singular, governed by *of*.
RULE III. *Prepositions govern, &c.*

person, except when the noun is in the *first* or *second* person. The conjugation of regular verbs may also be omitted, because their being *regular*, sufficiently indicates their principal parts. When the verb is passive, parse thus: "A verb transitive, in the passive voice, regular, irregular," &c.

- is**..... is a verb intransitive, irregular, *am, was, been*; it is found in the present indicative active, third person singular, and agrees with its subject *fear* RULE I. *A verb agrees, &c.*
- the**..... is the definite article; it belongs to *beginning*, and shews it to be used definitely; it is rendered so by the adjunct, *of wisdom*.
- beginning** is a noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, and is the predicate-nominative after *is*. RULE XIII. *The predicate substantive after a verb, &c.*
- of**..... is a preposition; it shews the relation between *wisdom*, the subsequent, and *beginning*, the antecedent term.
- wisdom**.. is a noun, neuter, in the objective singular, governed by *of*. RULE III. *A preposition, &c.*
- and**..... is a copulative conjunction; it connects the following compound, with the preceding simple sentence. RULE XX. 1. *Conjunctions connect, etc.*
- a**..... is the indefinite article; it belongs to *understanding*, and shews it to be used indefinitely. RULE XXXII. 1. *The article a or an, &c.*
- good**..... An adjective, compared irregularly, *good, better, best*; it qualifies *understanding*. RULE VIII. *An adjective qualifies, &c.*
- understanding** is a noun, neuter, in the objective singular, the object of, and governed by *have*. RULE II. *A transitive verb, &c.*
- have**..... is a verb transitive, irregular, *have, had, had*; it is found in the present indicative active, third person plural, and agrees with its subject, *they*. RULE I. *A verb agrees, &c.*
- all**..... is an indefinite adjective pronoun, and qualifies *they*. RULE VIII. *An adjective qualifies, &c.*
- they**..... is a personal pronoun, masculine or feminine, in the nominative plural put for persons, and is the subject of *have*. § 47, RULE I. *The subject of a verb, &c.*
- that**..... is a relative pronoun, masculine or feminine, in the nominative plural, the subject of *do*. § 47, RULE I. It is used for *who* (330), and agrees with its antecedent *they*. RULE XI. *The relative agrees, &c.* 1: connects its clause with its antecedent *they*, restricting it.
- do**..... is a verb, transitive, irregular, *do, did, done*; it is found in the present indicative active, third person plural, and agrees with its subject, *that*. RULE I. *A verb agrees, &c.*
- his**..... is a possessive adjective pronoun, standing for *Lord's*, and qualifying *commandments*. RULE VIII. *An adjective, &c.*
- commandments**, is a noun, neuter, in the objective plural; the object of, and governed by *do*. RULE II. *A transitive verb, &c.*
- His**..... is a possessive adjective pronoun, as before, qualifies *praise*. RULE VIII. *An adjective, &c.*
- praise**.... is a noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, the subject of *endureth*. § 47, RULE I. *The subject of a verb, &c.*
- endureth**.. is a verb, intransitive, regular; it is in the present indicative active, third person singular, and agrees with its subject *praise* RULE I. *A verb agrees, &c.*
- After**.... is an adverb of time, and modifies *endureth*. RULE XXIV. *Adverbs, &c.*

§ 85. PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.*

ON THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

NOTE. The following exercises, after being corrected, or in the time of correcting, may be used as exercises in Syntactical Parsing.

1. John writes pretty. I shall never do so no more. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. Was you present at last meeting? He need not to be in so much haste (201). He dare not act otherwise than he does. Him whom they seek is in the house. George or I is the person. They or he is much to be blamed. The troop consist of fifty men. Those set of books was a valuable present. That pillar is sixty foot high. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. These treers are remarkable tall. He acted bolder than was expected. This is he who I gave the book to. Eliza always appears amiably. Who do you lodge with now? He was born at London, but he died in Bath. If he be sincere I am satisfied. Her father and her were at church. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. It is no more but his due.

2. Let he and I read the next chapter. She is free of pain. Those sort of dealings are unjust. David the son of Jesse was the youngest of his brothers. You was very kind to him, he said. Well, says I, what does thou think of him now? James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behavior. Thou, James, did deny the deed. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. We need not to be afraid. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. You should drink plenty of goat milk. It was him who spoke first. Do you like ass milk? Is it me that you mean? Who did you buy your grammar from? If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray. Neither man nor woman were present. I am more taller than you. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a

*NOTE.— In the following, as well as in the preceding exercises, some sentences are taken from the Bible, containing expressions which, though authorized when that excellent translation was made, have now become obsolete. They are introduced here to be changed into the form which modern usage requires.

Pharisee. Is not thy wickedness great ? and thine iniquities infinite ? There was more sophists than one. If a person have lived twenty or thirty years, he should have some experience. If this were his meaning, the prediction has failed. Fidelity and truth is the foundation of all justice. His associates in wickedness will not fail to mark the alteration of his conduct. Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.

3. And when they had lift up their eyes, they saw no man, save Jesus only. Strive not with a man without cause, if he have done thee no harm. Now both the chief priests and Pharisees had given a commandment, that if any man knew where he were, he should show it, that they might take him. The girl, her book is torn in pieces. It is not me who he is in love with. He which commands himself, commands the whole world. Nothing is more lovelier than virtue.

4. The peoples happiness is the statesmans honor. Changed to a worsen shape thou canst not be. I have drunk no spirituous liquors this six years. He is taller than me, but I am stronger than him. Solid peace and contentment consists neither in beauty nor riches, but in the favor of God. After who is the King of Israel come out ? The reciprocations of love and friendship between he and I, have been many and sincere. Abuse of mercies ripen us for judgment. Peter and John is not at school to-day. Three of them was taken into custody. To study diligently, and behave genteelly, is commendable. The enemies who we have most to fear are those of our own hearts. Regulus was reckoned the most consummate warrior which Rome could then produce. Suppose life never so long, fresh accessions of knowledge may still be made.

5. Surely thou who reads so much in the Bible can tell me what became of Elijah. Neither the master nor the scholars is reading. Trust not him whom you know is dishonest. I love no interests but that of truth and virtue. Every imagination of the thoughts of the heart are evil continually. No one can be blamed for taking due care of their health. They crucified him, and two

others with him, on either side one, and Jesus in the midst. None can be blamed for taking care of his health.

6. I have read Popes Homer, and Drydens Virgil. He that is diligent you should commend. There was an earthquake which made the earth to tremble. And God said to Solomon, Wisdom and knowledge is granted unto thee, &c. I could not commend him for justifying himself when he knows that his conduct was so very improper. He was very much made on at school. Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered. If he is alone, tell him the news; but if there is any body with him, do not tell him. They ride faster than us. Though the measure be mysterious, it is worthy of attention. If he does but approve my endeavors, it will be an ample reward. Was it him who came last? Yes, it was him.

Forever in this humble cell,
Let thee and I, my fair one, dwell.

7. Every man should act suitable to his character and station in life. His arguments were exceeding clear. I only spoke three words on that subject. The ant and the bee sets a good example before lazy boys. Neither in this world, neither in the world to come. Evil communications corrupts good manners. Hannibal was one of the greatest generals whom the world ever saw. The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageous for gaining of wisdom.

8. These are the rules of grammar, by the observing which you may avoid mistakes. The king conferred upon him the title of a duke. My exercises are not well wrote. I do not hold my pen good. Grammar teaches us to speak proper. She accused her companion for having betrayed her. I will not dissent with her. Nothing shall make me swerve out of the path of duty and honor. Who shall I give it to? Who are you looking for? It is a diminution to, or a derogation of their judgment. It fell into their notice. She values herself for her fortune. That is a book which I am much pleased with. I have been to see the coronation, and

a fine sight it was. That portrait of the emperor's is a very exact resemblance of him. Every thing that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end. It is not him they blame so much.

9. No people has more faults than they that pretend to have none. The laws of Draco is said to have been wrote with blood. It is so clear, or so obvious, as I need not explain it. She taught him and I to read. The more greater a bad man's accomplishments are, the more dangerous he is to society, and the more less fit for a companion. Each has their own faults, and every one should endeavor to correct their own. Let your promises be few, and such that you can perform.

10. His being at an enmity with Cæsar and Antony, were the cause of perpetual discord. Their being forced to their books in an age at enmity with all restraint, have been the reason why many have hated books all their lives. There was a coffee-house at that end of the town, in which several gentlemen used to meet of an evening. Do not despise the state of the poor, lest it becomes your own condition. It was his duty to have interposed his authority in an affair of so much importance. He spent his whole life in the doing good. Every gentleman who frequented the house, and conversed with the erectors of this occasional club, were invited to pass an evening when they thought fit. The winter has not been so severe as we expected it to have been. The rest (of the stars) in circuit walls this universe. Sir, if thou have borne hence, tell me where thou hast laid him.

11. A lampoon, or a satire, does not carry in them robbery or murder. She and you were not mistaken in her conjectures. My sister and I, as well as my brother, are employed in their respective occupations. He repents him of that indiscreet action. It was me, and not him, that wrote it. Art thou him? I will take care that no one shall suffer no injury. I am a man who approves of wholesome discipline, and who recommend it to others; but I am not a person who promotes severity, or who object to mild and generous treatment.

This jackanapes has hit me in a right place enough. Prosperity, as truly asserted by Seneca, it very much obstructs the knowledge of ourselves. To do to others as we would that they should do to us, it is our duty. This grammar was purchased at Ogle's the bookseller's. The council was not unanimous.

12. Who spilt the ink upon the table? Him. Who lost this book? Me. Whose pen is this? John. There is in fact no impersonal verbs in any language. And he spitted on the ground and anointed his eyes. Had I never seen ye, I had never known ye. The ship Mary and Ann were restored to their owners. If we consult the improvement of mind, or the health of body, it is well known exercise is the great instrument for promoting both. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description.

13. I had no sooner placed her at my right hand, by the fire, but she opened to me the reason of her visit. A prudent wife, she shall be blessed. The house you speak of, it cost me five hundred pounds. Did I not tell thee, O thee infamous wretch! that thou would bring me to ruin? Not only the counsel's and attorney's, but the judge's opinion also, favored his cause. It was the men's, women's, and children's lot, to suffer great calamities. That is the eldest son of the King of England's. Lord Feversham's the general's tent. This palace had been the Grand Sultan's Mahomet's. They did not every man cast away the abomination of their eyes.

14. *I am purposed. He is arrived. They were deserted from their regiment. Whose works are these? They are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's. The mighty rivals are now at length agreed. The time of William making the experiment, at length arrived. If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering. This portrait

*RULE. It is improper to use an intransitive verb in the passive form. Thus, *I am purposed*; *He is arrived*; should be, *I have purposed*—*He has arrived*. From this rule there are a number of exceptions; for it is allowable to say *is come*; *She is gone*, &c. § 49, II.

of the king's does not much resemble him. These pictures of the king were sent to him from Italy. He who committed the offence, thou shouldst correct, not I, who am innocent.

15. But, Thomas, one of the twelve, called Didymus, was not with them when Jesus came. I offer observations, that a long and chequered pilgrimage have enabled me to make on man. When I visited Europe, I returned to America. Clelia is a vain woman, whom, if we do not flatter, she will be disgusted. In his conduct was treachery, and in his words, faithless professions. The orators did not forget to enlarge themselves on so popular a subject. He acted conformable with his instructions, and can not be censured justly.

16. No person could speak stronger on this subject, nor behave nobler, than our young advocate, for the cause of toleration. They were studious to ingratiate with those who it was dishonorable to favor. The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the king's prerogative. Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great. Many would exchange gladly their honors, beauty, and riches, for that more quiet and humbler station, which thou art now dissatisfied with. High hopes, and ambitious views, is a great enemy to tranquillity. Many persons will not believe but what they are free from prejudices. I will lay me down in peace, and take my rest. This word I have only found in Spenser. The king being apprised of the conspiracy, he fled from Jerusalem.

17. A too great variety of studies dissipate and weaken the mind. James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement. They admired the countryman's, as they called him, candor and uprightness. The pleasure or pain of one passion, differ from those of another. The court of Spain, who gave the order, were not aware of the consequences. There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the question; but I have chose to suspend my decision.

18. Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down

to a poor pitiable speck of earth; this opens for them a prospect to the skies. Temperance and exercise, howsoever little they may be regarded, they are the best means of preserving health. To despise others on account of their poverty, or to value ourselves for our wealth, are dispositions highly culpable. This task was the easier performed, from the cheerfulness with which he engaged in it. These counsels were the dictates of virtue, and the dictates of true honor. As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him. And they were judged every man according to their works. Riches is the bane of human happiness. I wrote to my brother before I received his letter.

19. When Garrick appeared, Peter was for some time in doubt whether it could be him or not. Was you living contented in spiritual darkness? The company was very numerous. Shall the throne of iniquity have fellowship with thee, which frameth mischief by a law? Where is the security that evil habits will be ever broken? Each of them bring material to the place. Nor let no comforter delight my ear. She was six years older than him. They were obliged to contribute more than us. The Barons had little more to rely on, besides the power of their families. The sewers must be kept so clear, as the water may run away. Such among us who follow that profession. No body is so sanguine to hope for it. She behaved unkindly than I expected. Agreeable to your request, I send this letter. She is exceeding fair. Thomas is not as docile as his sister. There was no other book but his. He died by a fever. Among whom was Mary Magdalene, and Mary the mother of James. My sister and I waited till they were called. The army were drawn up in haste. The public is respectfully informed that, &c. The friends and amusements which he preferred corrupted his morals. Each must answer for themselves. Henry, though at first he showed an unwillingness, yet afterwards he granted his request.

20. Him and her live very happily together. She invited Jane and I to see her new dress. She uttered

such cries that pierced the heart of every one who heard them. Maria is not clever as her sister Ann. Though he promises ever so solemnly, I will not believe him. The full moon was no sooner up, in all its brightness, but he opened to them the gate of paradise. It rendered the progress very slow of the new invention. This book is 'Thomas', that is James'. Socrates's wisdom has been the subject of many a conversation. Fare thee well, James. Who, who has the judgment of a man, would have drawn such an inference? George was the most diligent scholar whom I ever knew. I have observed some children to use deceit. He durst not to displease his master. The hopeless delinquents might, each in their turn, adopt the expostulatory language of Job. Several of our English words, some centuries ago, had different meanings to those they have now. And I was afraid, and went and hid thy talent in the earth; lo, there thou hast that is thine. With this booty he made off to a distant part of the country, where he had reason to believe that neither he nor his master were known. Thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory. I have been at London.

21. Which of the two masters, says Seneca, shall we most esteem?—he who strives to correct his scholars by prudent advice and motives of honor, or he who will lash them severely for not repeating their lessons as they ought? The blessing of the Lord it maketh rich, and he addeth no sorrow with it. For if there be first a willing mind, it is accepted according to that a man hath, and not according to that he has not. If a brother or a sister be naked and destitute of daily food, and one of you say unto them, Depart in peace, be ye warmed and filled; notwithstanding if ye give them not those things which are needful to the body, what doth it profit? 340.

22. But she always behaved with great severity to her maids; and if any of them were negligent of their duty, or made a slip in their conduct, nothing would serve her but burying the poor girls alive. He had no master to instruct him; he had read nothing but the writings of Moses and the prophets, and had received

no lessons from the Socrates's,* the Plato's and the Confucius's of the age. They that honor me, I will honor. For the poor always ye have with you.

23. The first Christians of the Gentile world made a simple and entire transition from a state as bad, if not worse, than that of entire ignorance, to the Christianity of the New Testament. And he said unto Gideon, every one that lappeth of the water with his tongue, as a dog lappeth, him shalt thou set by himself.

The duke had not behaved with that loyalty as was expected. Milton seems to have been well acquainted with his own genius, and to know what it was that nature had bestowed upon him more bountifully than upon others.

24. And on the morrow, because he would have known the certainty wherefore he was accused† of the Jews, he loosed him from his bonds,

Here rages force, here tremble flight and fear,
Here stormed contention, and here fury frowned:
The Cretan javelin reached him from afar,‡
And pierced his shoulder as he mounts his car.

Nor is it then a welcome guest, affording only an uneasy sensation, and brings always with it a mixture of concern and compassion.

He only‡ promised me a loan of the book for two days. I was once thinking to have written a poem.

25. A very slow child will often be found to get lessons by heart as soon as, nay sometimes sooner than, one who is ten times as intelligent.

It is then from a cultivation of the perceptive faculties, that we only can attain those powers of conception which are essential to taste.

No man is fit for free conversation for the inquiry

*The *possessive case* must not be used for the *plural number*. In this quotation from Baron Haller's Letters to his Daughter, the proper names should have been pluralized like common nouns; thus, From the *Socrateſes*, the *Platoes*, and the *Confuciuses* of the age.

†*Accused* requires *of* before the *crime*, and *by* before the *person* accusing.

‡This sentence expresses one meaning as it stands. It may be made to express other four by placing *only* after *me*, or *loan*, or *book*, or *days*.

after truth if he be exceedingly reserved; if he be haughty and proud of his knowledge; if he be positive and dogmatical in his opinions; if he be one who always affects to outshine all the company; if he be fretful and peevish; if he affect wit, and is full of puns, or quirks, or quibbles.

26. Conversation is the business, and let every one that please add their opinion freely. There are many more shining qualities in the mind of man, but there is none so useful as discretion.

Mr. Locke having been introduced by Lord Shaftsbury to the Duke of Buckingham and Lord Halifax, these three noblemen, instead of conversing with the philosopher on literary subjects, in a very short time sat down to cards.

BAD ARRANGEMENT.

27. It is your light fantastic fools, who have neither heads nor hearts, in both sexes, who, by dressing their bodies out of all shape, render themselves ridiculous and contemptible.

And how can brethren hope to partake of their parent's blessing, that curse each other.

The superiority of others over us, though in trivial concerns, never fails to mortify our vanity, and give us vexation, as Nicol admirably observes.

Likewise also the chief priests, mocking, said among themselves, with the scribes, He saved others; himself he can not save.

Noah, for his godliness, and his family, were the only persons preserved from the flood.

It is an unanswerable argument of a very refined age, the wonderful civilities that have passed between the nation of authors, and that of readers.

And they said among themselves, Who shall roll us away the stone from the door of the sepulchre? And when they had looked, they saw that the stone was rolled away: for it was very great.

A great stone that I happened to find, after a long search, by the sea-shore, served me for an anchor

It is true what he says, but it is not applicable to the point. Wanted a young man to take care of some horses, of a religious turn of mind. The following verses were written by a young man who has long lain in the grave, for his own amusement. He rode to town and drove twelve cows on horseback.

BAD ARRANGEMENT.*

28. The Senate of Rome ordered that no part of it should be rebuilt; it was demolished to the ground, so that travellers are unable to say where Carthage stood at this day.

Thus ended the war with Antiochus, twelve years after the second punic war, and two after it had begun.

Upon the death of Claudius, the young Emperor Nero pronounced his funeral oration, and he was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of a man.

Galerius abated much of his severities against the Christians on his death-bed, and revoked those edicts which he had formerly published, tending to their persecution, a little before his death.

The first care of Aurelius was to marry his daughter Lucilla once more to Claudius Pompeianus a man of moderate fortune, &c.

But at length having made his guards accomplices in their design, they set upon Maximin while he slept at noon in his tent, and slew both him and his son, whom he had made his partner in the empire, without any opposition.

Aurelian defeated the Marcomanni, a fierce and terrible nation of Germany, that had invaded Italy, in three several engagements.

AMBIGUITY.

29. You suppose him younger than I.

This may mean, either that you suppose him younger than I am, or that you suppose him to be younger than I suppose him to be.

* The exercises in this section are all extracted from the octavo edition of Goldsmith's Roman History, from which many more might be obtained.

Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip, the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia.

Here we are apt to suppose the word *himself* refers to Parmenio, and means that he had not only served *Philip*, but he had served *himself* at the same time. This, however, is not the meaning of the passage. If we arrange it thus, the meaning will appear. "Parmenio had not only served Philip the father of Alexander with great fidelity, but he had served *Alexander himself*, and was the first that opened the way for him into Asia."

Belisarius was general of all the forces under the emperor Justinian the First, a man of rare valor.

Who was a man of rare valor? The *emperor Justinian* we should suppose, from the arrangement of the words; but this is not the case, for it was *Belisarius*. The sentence should stand thus, "Belisarius, a man of rare valor, was general of all the forces under the emperor Justinian the First."

Lisias promised to his father never to abandon his friends.

Whether were they his *own* friends or his *father's* whom Lisias promised never to abandon? If his *own*, it should be, Lisias promised and said to his father, I will never abandon *my* friends. If his *father's*, it should be, Lisias promised and said to his father, I will never abandon *your* friends.

§ 86. MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

463. 1. Many writers use a *plural noun* after the second of two numeral adjectives; thus, "The first and second pages are torn." According to analogy it should be, The first and the second *page* [449, 3]. Thus we say, "The new and the old world," "Ancient and modern history," &c.

2. *Another*,—*One*,—*Every*.

Another corresponds to *one*; but not to *some*, nor to *every*. Thus, "Handed down from *every* writer of verses to *another*," should be, "From *one* writer of verses to *another*." "At *some* hour or *another*," should be, "At *some* hour or *other*."

One is often used in familiar phrases, (like *on* in French,) for *we*, or *any one of us*, indiscriminately; thus, "*One* is often more influenced by example than

by precept." The verb and pronoun with which *one* agrees, should be *singular*; thus, "If *one* take a wrong method at first, it will lead *them* astray," should be, "it will lead *one* astray," or "*him* astray."

3 *As follows*,—*As regards*,—*As appears*, &c.

Dr. Campbell and Mr. Murray regard these, and several other expressions of a similar kind, as impersonal verbs, and are of opinion that they should always be used in the singular. This, however, is contrary to the established usage of our best writers, who frequently use them in the plural form; as, "The circumstances were as follow." Other Grammarians, and particularly Dr. Crombie (Etymology, p. 389 et seq.), consider *as* to be a relative pronoun, and that the verb following it should be singular or plural, according as its antecedent is in the singular or plural number; thus, "His description was as follows," i. e. "was this which follows." "His words were as follow," i. e. "were those which follow." Neither of these explanations seems to be entirely satisfactory. It is perhaps better to regard such phrases as elliptical, and in parsing to supply the ellipsis thus, "The words were such as those which follow," or, "were the same as those which follow."

As concerns, *as regards*, used commonly in the singular, are also elliptical, and may be supplied thus, "As it concerns," or "As far as it concerns, regards," &c. *As* (it) *appears*, is always in the singular. In the plural, the noun or pronoun is commonly expressed thus, "These things, as they *concern*," or, "as far as *they* concern us;" or, "As far as these things concern us," &c. In this way, there is no necessity for considering these expressions as impersonal verbs, nor for depriving *as* of its conjunctive character. App. XII.

4. *So* and *Such*.

When we refer to the *species* or *nature* of a thing, the word *such* is properly applied; as, "Such a temper is seldom found." But when *degree* is signified, we use the word *so*; as, "So bad a temper is seldom found." Yet *so* is hardly ever used before an adjective followed

by a plural noun. In this case, *such* is used instead of *it*, to express degree. Thus, we say, "*Such* beautiful flowers I have seldom seen;" not, "*so* beautiful flowers." Still it would be correct to say, "I have never seen flowers *so* beautiful."

5. *Disappointed of*,—*Disappointed in*.

We are disappointed *of* a thing, when we expect it and do not get it; and disappointed *in* it, when we have it, and it does not answer our expectations. Hence a person may be disappointed *in* that which he is not disappointed *of*.

6. *Taste of*, and *Taste for*.

A taste *of* a thing, implies actual enjoyment of it; but a taste *for* it, implies only capacity for enjoyment; as, "When we have had a true taste *of* the pleasures of virtue, we can have no relish *for* those of vice." "He had a taste *for* such studies, and pursued them earnestly."

7. *Position of Adjectives*.

Adjectives should be placed next their substantives. Thus, it is incorrect to say, "a new pair of shoes," "a fine field of corn," "a good glass of wine," &c.; because the adjectives in these sentences qualify *shoes*, *corn*, *wine*, and not *pair*, *field*, *glass*, with which they are joined. The phrases should be, "A pair of new shoes;" "A field of fine corn;" "A glass of good wine."

8. *But that*.

But is often improperly used before *that*, after words which imply doubt or fear; as, "I doubt not *but that* he will fulfil his promise." This would seem to say, "I doubt nothing save one thing, namely, that he will fulfil his promise;" whereas, that is the very thing not doubted. Remove the *but*, and you preserve the sense.

9. *Older*, *Oldest*,—*Elder*, *Eldest*.

Older and *oldest* refer to maturity of age; *elder* and *eldest*, to priority of right by birth. Thus, "Homer is

an *older* author than Virgil." "Being the *eldest* of the family, he succeeded to the estate."

10. *Farther* and *Farthest*,—*Further* and *Furthest*.

Farther and *farthest* denote place or distance; *Further* and *furthest*, quantity or addition; as, "The *farther* they advanced, the more interesting was the scene." "I have nothing *further* to say on this subject." *Farther* is the comparative, and *farthest*, the superlative of *far*; *Further* and *furthest*, of *fore* or *forth*.

11. *Later*, *latest*,—*Latter*, *last*,—*Next*, *Nearest*.

Later and *latest*, compared from *late*, have respect to time; *latter* and *last*, to place or position, and are employed without so direct a reference to comparison. *Next* refers either to time or place; *nearest*, to place only.

12. *Past*, *passed*.

Past is an adjective; *passed*, the past tense or past participle of the verb, and they ought not, as they frequently are, to be confounded with each other.

13. *Lay*, *lie*,—*Set*, *sit*.

Lay and *lie* are distinct in meaning and application, and can not be used indiscriminately. The use of the former for the latter is an error exceedingly prevalent, and should be corrected. Thus we constantly hear such expressions as, "It *lays* on the table;" "It *laid* there yesterday." *Lie* is an intransitive verb; *Lay* is transitive, and means *to make lie*. The past tense of *lie* is *lay*, and past participle *lain*. The past tense of *lay* is *laid*, and past participle *laid*. Thus, The bricklayer *lays* bricks, and being *laid*, they *lie*. The book *lies* on the shelf; it was *laid* there a week ago, and has *lain* ever since. The same distinction should be observed between *set* and *sit*.

14. "Be that as it *will*," is a common, but inaccurate expression. It ought to be, "Be that as it *may*," or *may* have been.

15. "*Seldom* or *ever*" is not correct. It should be *seldom* or *never*; or, *seldom* if *ever*.

464. § 87. A LIST OF IMPROPER EXPRESSIONS

SELECTED CHIEFLY FROM PICKERING'S VOCABULARY.

I should <i>admire</i> to go to sea.	I would like to go to sea.
I <i>allot</i> upon going.	I intend to go.
The <i>alone</i> God. The <i>alone</i> motive.	The <i>one</i> God. The only motive.
I <i>an't</i> ; you <i>an't</i> ; he <i>an't</i> , &c.	I am not; you are not; he is not, &c.
<i>Any manner of means</i> .	Any means.
His discourse was <i>approved</i> .	His discourse was approved.
To sell <i>at auction</i> .	To sell by auction.
He was walking <i>back and forth</i> .	—— backwards and forwards.
Part were good, <i>the balance</i> were bad.	—— the remainder, or the rest were bad.
His argument was <i>based</i> on this fact.	His argument was founded on this fact.
Where <i>be</i> you? Here I <i>be</i> .	Where are you? Here I am.
The money was <i>ordered paid</i> .	The money was ordered to be paid.
I would not <i>belittle</i> or <i>demean</i> myself.	I would not degrade myself.
He was paid for his <i>betterments</i> .	He was paid for his improvements
I <i>calculate</i> to leave town soon.	I intend to leave town soon.
A <i>chunk</i> of bread.	A piece of bread.
A <i>clever</i> * house.	A good house.
He <i>conducts well</i> .	He conducts himself well, respectably.
He is <i>considerable</i> of a scholar.	He is a pretty good scholar.
His farm was <i>convenient</i> to mine.	His farm was contiguous to mine, close
The <i>creaturest</i> must be sent to pasture.	The cattle must be sent to pasture.
<i>Curious</i> apples; <i>curious</i> cider, &c.	Excellent apples, excellent cider, &c.
He is a <i>decent</i> scholar, writer.	He is a pretty good scholar, writer.
Her situation was <i>distressing to a degree</i> .	—— was extremely distressing
Such conduct was very <i>derogatory</i> .	—— was very degrading.
A total <i>distitution</i> of capacity.	A total want of capacity.
The United States, or <i>either</i> of them.	The United States, or any of them
<i>Equally</i> as well—as good, &c.	Equally well, or just as well, &c.
Mr. —— B——, Esq.	A —— B——, Esq.
I think it will <i>eventuate</i> in this.	—— will end, or terminate, in this.
I <i>expect†</i> they be.	I believe they are.
I <i>expect</i> he must have died long ago	I think he must have died, &c.
These things are in a bad <i>fix</i> .	—— in a bad state or condition.
Will you <i>fix</i> these things for me?	Will you put these things in order for me?
<i>Firstly</i> , secondly, thirdly, &c.	<i>First</i> , secondly, &c.
How do your <i>folks</i> do?	How is your family?
What do <i>folks</i> think of it?	What do people think of it?
Will you <i>go by</i> and dine with me?	Will you <i>go by my house</i> and dine?
Talents of the highest <i>grade</i> .	Talents of the highest order.
Do you love play? I <i>guess†</i> I do.	—— there is no doubt of that
You will tell another <i>guess</i> (guise) sto- ry soon.	—— another <i>kind</i> of story.
We may <i>hope</i> the assistance of God.	We may hope for the assistance of God.
A <i>horse colt</i> ; A <i>mare colt</i> .	A colt: A filly.
It would <i>illy</i> accord.	It would ill accord.
When did you come <i>in</i> town.	When did you come into town? (§ 77, Obs. 2.)
In good <i>case</i> ; or <i>kelter</i> .	In good condition, good order.
Where do you <i>keep</i> ?— <i>put up</i> ?—	At whose house do you stay?
A <i>lengthy sermon</i> , &c.	A long sermon, &c.

*The word *clever*, applied to persons, in the English sense, means *active*, *quick*, *ingenious*; in the American sense, of a *kind*, *obliging disposition*.

†This word, in the northern states, is a general term for horses, cattle, sheep, swine, &c.

‡*Expect* is properly applied to things to come; *guess*, to things uncertain, never present, or about which there is no doubt

Why don't you strike *like* I do?
 He is a *very likely* man.
 Will you *loan* me a few dollars?
 I was *mad* at him.
Mighty cold; *mighty* fine.
*Obnoxious** doctrines.
 He will *once in a while* get drunk.
 He went up *on* to the roof.
 What *had that* ought to be?
Over the signature of Junius.†
 He still *plead* not guilty.
 They are not very *plenty*.
 He is rather *poorly*.
Predicated on former proceedings.
 The work *progresses* slowly.
 Not *proven*.
 I was *raised* in Virginia.
 A committee was *raised*.
 The price will *raise* soon.
 I *reckon* he will.
 The council *resulted*, that, &c.
 Such doctrines *revolt* us.
 A *rugged* child.
 I *sat* out on my journey.
 The market is full of *saucs*.
 You have too much *saucs*.
 I *see* him, I *seen* him yesterday.
Serious people.
 He is *some* better than he was.
 I have had a *spell* of sickness.
 Be *spry*. He is a *spry* man.
 He shews much *temper*.‡
 He is an *ugly* fellow.

— as I do, or, like as I do.
 He is a very good looking man.
 — lend me a few dollars
 I was angry with him.
 Very cold; very fine.
 Hurtful or offensive doctrines.
 — sometimes get drunk.
 He went up to the roof.
 What should that be?
 Under the signature of Junius.
 — pleaded not guilty.
 They are not very plentiful.
 — rather indisposed.
 Founded on former proceedings.
 The work advances slowly.
 Not proved.
 I was brought up in Virginia.
 — was formed or appointed.
 — will rise soon.
 I suppose he will.
 — came to the conclusion, that, &c.
 We revolt at such doctrines.
 A robust or healthy child.
 I set out, &c.
 — full of vegetables.
 — too much impertinence.
 I saw him yesterday.
 Religious people.
 — somewhat better.
 I have been sick for some time.
 Be quick—an active man.
 — much warmth of temper.
 — a fellow of bad disposition.

§ 88. PUNCTUATION.

465. Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to convey to the reader the exact sense, and assist him in the proper delivery.

**Obnoxious* signifies *liable to*, and should not be used for *hurtful* or *offensive*.

†On this expression, Pickering remarks: "A few of our writers still countenance this unwarrantable innovation; but the principle on which it is defended would unsettle the whole language." We might with equal propriety say, "Given over my hand and seal." "It is so well known to be the constant practice of the best English and American writers to say, 'under a name,' and 'under a signature,' that it will hardly be credited that any who speak the English language could have questioned the propriety of it." The term *under*, in such phrases, is figurative, and means, under the sanction, authority, or responsibility of. It has nothing to do with the mere relative position of the writing, and the name or signature attached to it; a circumstance in itself of no consequence whatever, but which, nevertheless, is all that the term *over* is capable of expressing.

‡*Temper*, in the American sense, means warmth of temper, passion. In England it means "moderation, coolness." In this sense the words *temperate* and *intemperate* are always understood.

466. The principal stops are the following:

The Comma (,) the semicolon (;) the colon (:) the period, or full stop (.) the note of interrogation (?) the note of exclamation (!)

467. The comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the colon, double that of the semicolon; and the period, double that of the colon.

468. The duration of the pauses must be left to the taste of the reader or speaker.

RULES FOR THE PROPER PUNCTUATION OF A COMPOSITION.

THE COMMA.

469. The comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

470. RULE 1. A simple sentence, when it is a short one, admits only a period at the end; as, "No state of life is exempt from trouble."

471. When a simple sentence is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied by inseparable adjuncts, a comma must be inserted before the verb; as, "A steady and undivided attention to one object, is a sure mark of superior genius. The necessity of an early acquaintance with history, has always been acknowledged."

472. NOTE. By the term *adjunct*, is meant any number of words added by way of modifying or qualifying the principal words; thus, "Cicero, *the eloquent Cicero*, suffered an ignominious death : " the phrase, *the eloquent Cicero*, is the adjunct of *Cicero* (484).

473. RULE 2. The simple members of a compound sentence are separated by commas; as, "When the graces of novelty are worn off, admiration is succeeded by indifference." "Crafty men condemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them."

474. But when the members are closely connected, the comma is unnecessary; as, "Revelation tells us how we may obtain happiness."

475. RULE 3. Two words of the same part of speech, whether nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, or adverbs, do not admit a comma between them when connected by a conjunction; as, "The

earth and the moon are planets. "Time brings a *gentle and powerful* opiate to all misfortunes." "The man of order *catches and arrests* the hours as they fly." "By *encouraging and animating* him, he became active." "Success generally depends on acting *prudently and vigorously.*" "We must live either *virtuously or viciously.*"

476. But when the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted between the words; as, "*Reason, passion,* answer one great end." "He is a *plain, honest* man."

477. RULE 4. *Three or more* nouns, adjectives, verbs, participles, or adverbs, with or without a conjunction, are separated by commas; as, "Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts." "David was a brave, wise, and prudent prince." "The sight, the hearing, the feeling, the taste, the smell, are the five natural senses."

478. When words are connected in pairs, there is a comma after each pair; as, "Anarchy *and* confusion, poverty *and* distress, desolation *and* ruin, are the consequences of civil war."

479. RULE 5. The words used in a direct address, the case absolute, a short expression in the manner of a quotation, and the infinitive mood absolute when it is not used as a nominative case, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "*My son,* hear the counsels of thy father." "I remain, Sir, your obedient servant." "*The time of youth being* precious, we should devote it to the purposes of improvement." "Plutarch calls lying, *the vice of slaves.*" "*To enjoy* present pleasure, he sacrificed future ease and reputation."

480. RULE 6. A single name in apposition is not separated by a comma; as, "The apostle Peter;" "The emperor Antoninus." But when such name is accompanied with an adjunct, the adjunct should have a comma before and after it; as "Augustus, *the Roman emperor,* was a patron of the fine arts." "Paul, *the apostle of the Gentiles,* was eminent for his zeal and knowledge."

481. RULE 7. Simple members of sentences connected by comparatives, and phrases placed in opposition to, or in contrast with, each other, are separated by commas; thus, "*As* the hart panteth after the water brooks, *so* doth my soul after thee." "They are sometimes in union *with,* and sometimes in opposition *to,* the views of each other."

*' Though deep yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong, without rage; without o'erflowing, full.'*

482. When one word follows the last preposition as its object a comma must not be inserted before it; as, "He was much attached to, and concerned for John."

483. When the members of comparative sentences are short, the comma is omitted; as, "How much *better* is wisdom *than* gold."

484. RULE 8. All adjuncts or explanatory phrases, either at the beginning, middle, or end of a simple sentence, are separated from it by commas; as, "With *gratitude*, I remember his goodness to me." "I remember, *with gratitude*, his goodness to me." "His talents, *formed for great enterprises*, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous." "Vices, *like shadows, towards the evening of life*, grow great and monstrous." "I saw the captain, *as he is called*."

485. A comma must also be inserted between the two parts of a sentence, which have their natural order inverted; as, "To God, nothing is impossible; that is, "Nothing is impossible to God."

486. RULE 9. A comma must be inserted before the relative, when the clause immediately after it is used as explanatory of the antecedent clause; as, "He, *who* disregards the good opinion of the world, must be utterly abandoned;" or, "He must be utterly abandoned, *who* disregards the good opinion of the world."

487. But when the relative is so closely connected with its antecedent, that it can not be transposed, a comma must not be inserted before it; as, "Self-denial is the *sacrifice which* virtue must make." "I have carefully perused the *book which* you lent me."

488. RULE 10. When any tense of the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive mood, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb by a comma; as, "The best preservative of health is, to be temperate in all our gratifications." "To be temperate in all our gratifications, is the best preservative of health."

489. RULE 11. When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted; as, "Reading makes a full man; conference, a ready man; and writing, an exact man." •

490. RULE 12. The word *that*, used as a conjunction, is preceded by a comma; as, "Be virtuous, *that* you may be happy."

491. Adverbs, prepositions, or conjunctions, used to connect or introduce a new member, must be separated from the preceding part of the sentence by a comma; as, "The instructions of ad-

versity may be wholesome, *though* displeasing." "The wise man seeketh wisdom, *but* the fool despiseth understanding."

492. RULE 13. The words *nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly, in fact, therefore, wherefore, however, besides, indeed*, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must, when considered of importance, be separated from the context by a comma, according to rule 8th; as, "*Besides*, our reputation does not depend on the caprice of man, but on our own good actions." "*Lastly*, strive to preserve a conscience void of offence towards God and man." "If the spring put forth no blossoms, in summer there will be no beauty, and in autumn, no fruit; *so*, if youth be trifled away without improvement, riper years may be contemptible, and old age miserable."

493. When, however, these phrases are not considered important, and particularly in short sentences, the comma is not inserted; as, "There is *surely* a pleasure in acting kindly." "Idleness *certainly* is the mother of all vices." "He was *at last* convinced of his error."

494.*.* The foregoing rules will, it is hoped, be found comprehensive; yet there may be some cases in which the student must rely on his own judgment.

In composing works for the press, many authors merely insert a period at the end of each sentence, and leave the rest to be pointed by the printers, who, from their constant practice, are supposed to have acquired a uniform mode of punctuation.

THE SEMICOLON.

495. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence, which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

496. RULE 1. When the first division of a sentence contains a complete proposition, but is followed by a clause which is added as an inference, or to give some explanation, the two parts must be separated by a semicolon; as, "Perform your duty faithfully; for this will procure you the blessing of heaven." "The orator makes the truth plain to his hearers; he awakens them; he excites them to action; he shews them their impending danger." "Be in peace with many; nevertheless, have but one counsellor of a thousand."

497. RULE 2. When several short sentences follow each other, having merely a slight connection in idea, though in other respects complete in themselves, they may be separated by a semicolon; as, "Every thing grows old; every thing passes away; every

thing disappears." "The epic poem recites the exploits of a hero; tragedy represents a disastrous event; comedy ridicules the vices and follies of mankind; pastoral poetry describes rural life; and elegy displays the tender emotions of the heart.

THE COLON.

498. The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon, but not so independent as to require a period.

499. RULE 1. A colon is used when a member of a sentence is complete in itself, both in sense and construction, but is followed by some additional remark or illustration, depending upon it in sense, though not in syntax; as, "A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass: in a few years he has all the endowments he is capable of, and were he to live ten thousand more, would be the same thing he is at present." "Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important."

500. RULE 2. When a sentence contains several perfect members separated by semicolons, the concluding member requires a colon before it; as, "A Divine Legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an Almighty Governor stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual rest prepared hereafter for the righteous, and of indignation and wrath awaiting the wicked: these are the considerations which overawe the world, which support integrity and check guilt."

501. RULE 3. Either the colon or semicolon may be used when an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced; as, "Always remember this ancient maxim; *'Know thyself.'*" "The scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: *'God is love.'*"

502. RULE 4. The insertion or omission of a conjunction before the concluding member of a sentence, frequently determines the use of the colon or semicolon. When the conjunction is not expressed before the concluding member, the colon is to be used; but when it is expressed, the semicolon is used; as, "Apply yourself to learning: it will redound to your honor." "Apply yourself to learning; for it will redound to your honor."

THE PERIOD.

503. When a sentence is complete, with respect to the construction and the sense intended, a period must be used; as, "God made all things." "By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed." "In the varieties of life, we are inured to habits both of the active and the passive virtues."

504. A period is sometimes inserted between sentences which are connected by conjunctions; as, "Our position is, that happiness does not consist in greatness. *And* this position we make out by shewing, that even what are supposed to be the peculiar advantages of greatness, the pleasures of ambition and superiority, are in reality common to all conditions. *But* whether the pursuits of ambition are ever wise, whether they contribute more to the happiness or misery of the pursuers, is a different question, and a question concerning which we may be allowed to entertain great doubt."

505. The period must be used after all abbreviations; as, "A. D." "M. A." "Fol."

506. OTHER CHARACTERS USED IN COMPOSITION.

Interrogation (?) is used when a question is asked.

Admiration (!) or *Exclamation*, is used to express any sudden emotion of the mind.

Parenthesis () is used to enclose some necessary remark in the body of another sentence; *commas* are now commonly used instead of parentheses

Apostrophe (') is used in place of a letter left out; as *lov'd* for *loved*.

Caret (Δ) is used to show that some word is either omitted or interlined.

Hyphen (-) is used at the *end* of a *line*, to show that the rest of the word is at the beginning of the next line. It also connects compound words; as, *Teapot*; *Father-in-law*.

Section (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portions

Paragraph (¶) is used to denote the beginning of a new subject.

Crotchets ([]) or *Brackets*, are properly used to enclose a word or phrase interpolated for the purpose of explanation, correction, or supplying a deficiency in a sentence quoted or regarded as such, and which did not belong to the original composition; thus, It is said, "The wisest men [and, it might be added, the best too] are not exempt from human frailty."

Quotation (" ") is used to show that a passage is quoted in the author's words, or to mark a passage regarded as a quotation.

Index (☞) is used to point out any thing remarkable.

Brace. { is used to connect words which have one common term, or three lines in poetry, having the same rhyme, called the *triplet*.

Ellipsis (—) is used when some letters are omitted; as, K—g for King.

Acute accent (') is used to denote a *short* syllable; the *grave* (˘) a *long*.

Breve (˘) marks a *short* vowel or syllable, and the *Macron*, (—) a *long*.

Diaeresis (¨) is used to divide a diphthong into two syllables; as, ærial.

Asterisk (*)—*Obelisk* (†)—*Double Dagger* (‡)—and *Parallels* (||) with *small letters* and *figures*, refer to some note on the *margin*, or at the bottom of the page.

*** Two or three asterisks denote the omission of some letters in some bold or indelicate expression; or some defect in the manuscript.

Dash (—) is used to denote abruptness—a significant pause—an unexpected turn in the sentiment—or that the *first* clause is *common* to all the rest, as in *this definition* of a dash.

507.

ABBREVIATIONS.

<i>Latin.</i>		<i>English.</i>
Ante Christum*	A. C.	Before Christ
Artium Baccalaureus	A. B.	Bachelor of Arts (often B. A.)
Anno Domini	A. D.	In the year of our Lord
Artium Magister	A. M.	Master of Arts
Anno Mundi	A. M.	In the year of the world
Ante Meridiem	A. M.	In the forenoon
Anno Urbis Condite	A. U. C.	In the year after the building of the city
Baccalaureus Divinitatis	B. D.	Bachelor of Divinity [—Rome]
Custos Privati Sigilli	C. P. S.	Keeper of the Privy Seal
Custos Sigilli	C. S.	Keeper of the Seal
Doctor Divinitatis	D. D.	Doctor of Divinity
Exempli gratia	e. g.	For example
Regiæ Societatis Socius	R. S. S.	Fellow of the Royal Society
Regiæ Societatis Antiquario-	R. S. A. S.	Fellow of the Royal Society & Ant.
rum Socius		quaries
Georgius Rex	G. R.	George the King
Id est	i. e.	That is
Jesus Hominum Salvator	J. H. S.	Jesus the Saviour of men
Legum Doctor	L. L. D.	Doctor of Laws
Locus Sigilli	L. S.	Place of the Seal
Messieurs (<i>French</i>)	Messrs	Gentlemen
Medicinæ Doctor	M. D.	Doctor of Medicine
Memoriæ Sacrum	M. S.	Sacred to the Memory (or B. M.)
Nota Bene	N. B.	Note well: Take notice
Post Meridiem	P. M.	In the afternoon
Post Scriptum	P. S.	Postscript, something written after
Ultimo	Ult.	Last, (month)
Et Cætera	&c. &c.	And the rest; and so forth
A. Answer, Alexander	L. C. J.	Lord Chief Justice
Acct. Account	Knt.	Knight
Bart. Baronet	K. G.	Knight of the Garter
Bp. Bishop	K. B.	Knight of the Bath
Capt. Captain	K. C. B.	Knt. Commander of the Bath
Col. Colonel	K. C.	Knt. of the Crescent
Cr. Creditor	K. P.	Knight of St. Patrick
Dr. Debtor, Doctor	K. T.	Knight of the Thistle
Do. or Ditto. The same	MS. ‡	Manuscript
Viz.† Namely	MSS.	Manuscripts
Q. Question, Queen	N. S.	New Style
R. N. Royal Navy	O. S.	Old Style
Esq. Esquire	J. P.	Justice of the Peace

*The *Latin* of these Abbreviations is inserted, not to be got by heart, but to show the etymology of the *English*; or explain, for instance how *P. M.* comes to mean *afternoon*, &c.

†Contracted from *videlicet*

508. PARAGRAPHS.

Different subjects, unless they are very short, or very numerous, should be separated into paragraphs.

When one subject is continued to a considerable length, the larger divisions of it should be put into distinct paragraphs.

The facts, premises, and conclusions, of a subject, sometimes naturally point out the separations into paragraphs: and each of these, when of great length, will again require subdivisions at the most distinctive parts.

In cases which require a connected subject to be formed into several paragraphs, a suitable turn of expression, exhibiting the connection of the broken parts, will give beauty and force to the division.

509. § 89. CAPITALS,

Formerly every noun began with a capital letter, both in writing and in printing; but at present only the following words begin with capital letters:—

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.

But if several interrogative or exclamatory sentences are so connected, that the latter sentences depend on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter; as, "How doth the city sit solitary, that was full of people how are her habitations become as desolate! how is she become as a widow!"

3. Proper names, that is, names of persons, places, ships, &c.

4. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.

5. The first word of every line in poetry.

6. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, &c.

7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, Grecian, Roman, English, &c.

8. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a

colon; as, Always remember this ancient maxim: "*Know thyself.*"

When a quotation is not introduced in the direct form, but follows a comma, the first word must not begin with a capital; as, Solomon observes, that 'pride goes before destruction.'

9. Common nouns when personified; as, "Come, gentle *Spring.*"

10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, "Euclid's *Elements of Geometry*;" "Goldsmith's *Deserted Village.*"

NOTE. Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

§ 90. RHETORICAL DIVISIONS OF A DISCOURSE.

510. The principal parts of a discourse are generally six in number, viz. the *Exordium*, the *Narration*, the *Proposition*, the *Confirmation*, the *Refutation*, and the *Peroration*.

511. The *Exordium*, or beginning of a discourse, is the part in which the writer or speaker gives some intimation of his subject, and solicits the favor and attention of his audience or readers.

512. The *Narration* is a brief recital of all the facts connected with the case, from beginning to end.

513. The *Proposition* is the part in which is given the true state of the question, specifying the points maintained, and those in which the writer or speaker differs from his adversary.

514. The *Confirmation* assembles all the proofs and arguments that can be adduced in support of what has been attempted to be established. The stronger begin and end this part, and the weaker are reserved for the middle.

515. The *Refutation* is the part in which the writer or speaker answers the arguments and objections of his opponent.

516. In the *Peroration* or Conclusion, he sums up the principal arguments, and endeavors to excite the passions of his reader or hearer in his favor.

§ 91. DIFFERENT KINDS OF COMPOSITION.

517. All Composition, whether spoken or written, is of two kinds, either Prose or Poetry.

518. *Prose* compositions are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed in common and ordinary language.

519. **Poetic compositions** are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed by such a selection and arrangement of words as pleases the ear and captivates the fancy.

520. Thousands write and speak prose, for one who does so in verse; yet it is generally allowed that poetic compositions, in all countries, have preceded those of prose.

521. Compositions, whether in prose or poetry, are divided into different classes, and arranged under various heads.

I. DIFFERENT KINDS OF PROSE COMPOSITION.'

522. The different kinds into which prose compositions may be divided, are, Narrative, Letters, Memoirs, History, Biography, Essays, Philosophy, Sermons, Novels, and Speeches or Orations.

523. **NARRATIVE** is a plain and simple statement of such facts and occurrences as a person may have either seen or heard, and includes in it Voyages and Travels of all descriptions.

524. **LETTERS** are those easy and familiar compositions which pass from one person to another, and may be appropriated to every description of subject, though generally relating to the common and ordinary occurrences of life and business.

525. **MEMOIRS** consist of loose and familiar records of individuals or nations, without that regularity of method which history and biography require.

526. **HISTORY** is a regular account of the past transactions of some particular age or nation, and details chiefly plans of government, movements of armies, and events of great general interest.

527. **BIOGRAPHY** is a particular species of history, and consists of an account of the birth, death, and most important occurrences in the life of some eminent individual.

528. **ESSAY** means trial or attempt, and is a modest term assumed at the pleasure of the writer, as the title of almost any species of composition, though it is generally employed to denote such writings as the Spectator, Rambler, etc.

529. **PHILOSOPHY**, or Philosophical Compositions are those in which the principles of art and science are inculcated, and the various phenomena of the natural and moral world investigated.

530. **SERMONS** are illustrations of some doctrine of Scripture, or exhortations to the practice of some moral and religious duty, enjoined by Christianity.

531. **NOVELS** are those compositions which give an account of characters and events that have in reality never existed, but have

been invented or supposed by the author, for the purpose either of affording pleasure, or inculcating some important lesson.

532. **SPEECHES AND ORATIONS** are those addresses which are made either at the Bar or in Public Assemblies, for the purpose of persuading the hearers of the truth of certain opinions, or leading to the adoption of certain modes of action.

II. DIFFERENT KINDS OF POETRY.

533. The different kinds into which poetry may be divided, are the Epigram, the Epitaph, the Sonnet, Pastoral, Didactic, Satiric, Descriptive, Elegiac, Lyric, Dramatic, and Epic, or Heroic poetry.

534. **AN EPIGRAM** is a short, witty poem, the point or humour of which is brought out in the concluding lines.

535. **AN EPITAPH** is an inscription on a tombstone, in commemoration of some departed person.

536. The **SONNET**, which is of Italian origin, means a little song, and consists generally of fourteen lines, constructed in a peculiar manner.

537. **PASTORAL POETRY** is that which relates to rural life; though it sometimes assumes the form of a simple song or ballad.

538. **DIDACTIC POETRY** is that by which some art or duty is inculcated; and, though forming a distinct class of itself, yet its characteristics are so general as to extend to almost every description of poetry.

539. **SATIRES** are poems intended to ridicule vices and follies, and hold them up to contempt. They have been divided into two classes; the jocose or ludicrous, and the serious or declamatory.

540. **DESCRIPTIVE POETRY** may be classed under two divisions; that, by which is offered to our view a delineation of nature, or of natural scenery, and that, by which are described the manners, sentiments, and passions of men.

541. **ELEGY** was first employed in lamentation for the decease of great persons, or of those who were particularly dear to the writer; but it was afterwards extended in its application, and employed to express the misery of disappointed love, and even at times made the vehicle of moral sentiment.

542. **LYRIC POETRY** is such as may be sung or set to music, which both the term *ode*, and the epithet *lyric*, from lyre, a musical instrument, imply. There is the serious and sublime ode, and the familiar and comic which, in modern language, is denominated the song.

543. By **DRAMATIC POETRY** is generally meant a poem in blank verse or rhyme, called a play, and fitted for representation on the stage. It is of two kinds, Tragic and Comic.

544. An **EPIC POEM**, is a historical representation or description of some great and important action, involving the interests of the whole, or of a large portion, of mankind.

§ 92. FIGURES.

545. A **FIGURE** in grammar, is some deviation from the *ordinary form*, or *construction*, or *application* of words, in a sentence, for the purpose of greater precision, variety, or elegance of expression.

546. There are three kinds of Figures; viz. of *Etymology*, of *Syntax*, and of *Rhetoric*. The first and the second refer to the *form* of words, or to their *construction*, the last to their *application*.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

547. A Figure of *Etymology* is a departure from the *usual* or *simple form* of words, merely.

548. Of these the most important are *eight*, viz.. *A-phær-e-sis*, *Pros-the-sis*, *Syn-co-pe*, *A-poc-o-pe*, *Par-a-go-ge*, *Di-ær-e-sis*, *Syn-ær-e-sis*, and *Tme-sis*.

1. *Aphæresis* is the elision of a syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'gainst, 'gan, 'bove, 'neath, for *against*, *began*, *above*, *beneath*.

2. *Prosthesis* is the prefixing of a syllable to a word; as, *adown*, *agoing*, etc., for *down*, *going*, etc.

3. *Syncope* is the elision of a letter or syllable, usually a short one, from the middle of a word; as, *med'cine*, *sp'rit*, *e'en*, for *medicine*, *spirit*, *even*.

4. *Apocope* is the elision of a letter or syllable from the end of a word; as, *tho'* for *though*, *th'* for *the*.

5. *Paragoge* is the annexing of a syllable to the end of a word; as, *deary*, for *dear*.

6. *Diæresis* is the division of two concurrent vowels into different syllables, usually marked thus (··) on the second vowel, as, *coöperate*, *aërial*.

7. *Synæresis* is the joining of two syllables into one, in either orthography or pronunciation; as, *dost*, *seest*, for *doest*, *seest*; or, *loved*, *learned*, pronounced in one syllable instead of two, *lov-ed*, *learn-ed*.

8. *Tmesis* is separating the parts of a compound word by an intervening term; as, "*What time soever*;" "*On which side soever*;" "*To us ward*."

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

549. A Figure of *Syntax* is a deviation from the usual construction of words in a sentence, used for the sake of greater beauty or force.

550. Of these, the most important are *Ellipsis*, *Pleonasm*, *Syllepsis*, *Enallage*, and *Hyperbaton*.

1. *Ellipsis* is the omission of words necessary to the full construction of a sentence, but not necessary to convey the idea intended. Such words are said to be understood; as; "*The men, women, and children*," for "*The men, the women, and the children*."

2. *Pleonasm* is the using of more words than are necessary to the full construction of a sentence, to give greater force or emphasis to the expression; as, "*The boy, oh! where was he?*"

3. *Syllepsis* is an inferior species of personification, by which we conceive the sense of words otherwise than the words import, and construe them according to the sense conceived. Thus, of the sun, we say, "*He shines*;" of a ship, "*She sails*" (§ 7. Obs. 2).

4. *Enallage* is the use of one part of speech for another, or of one modification of a word for another; as an adjective for an adverb, thus: "*They fall successive, and successive rise*," for *successively*; the use of *we* and *you* in the plural, to denote an individual, etc. (§ 15. Obs. 3-4).

5. *Hyperbaton* is the transposition of words and clauses in a sentence, to give variety, force, and vivacity, to the composition; as, "*Now come we to the last*." "*A man he was to all the country dear*." "*He wanders earth around*."

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

551. A Figure of *Rhetoric* is a deviation from the ordinary application of words in speech, to give anima-

tion, strength, and beauty, to the composition. These figures are sometimes called *tropes*.

552. Of these, the most important are the following, viz :

Personification,	Hyperbole,	Climax,
Simile,	Irony,	Exclamation,
Metaphor,	Metonymy,	Interrogation,
Allegory,	Synecdoche,	Paralepsis,
Vision,	Antithesis,	Apostrophe.

1. *Personification*, or *prosopopœia*, is that figure of speech by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "*The sea saw it, and fled.*"

2. A *simile* expresses the resemblance that one object bears to another; as, "*He shall be like a tree planted by the rivers of water.*"

3. A *metaphor* is a simile without the sign [*like*, or *as*, etc.] of comparison; as, "*He shall be a tree planted by,*" etc.

4. An *allegory* is a continuation of several metaphors, so connected in sense as to form a kind of parable or fable. Thus, the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine: "*Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt,*" etc. Ps. lxxx. 8-16. Of this style are Æsop's Fables, Bunyan's "*Pilgrim's Progress,*" etc.

5. *Vision*, or *imagery*, is a figure by which the speaker represents past events, or the objects of his imagination, as actually present to his senses; as, "Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy," "The combat thickens : on, ye brave!"

6. An *hyperbole* is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are. Thus, David says of Saul and Jonathan, "*They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions.*"

7. *Irony* is a figure by which we mean quite the contrary of what we say; as, when Elijah said to the worshippers of Baal, "*Cry aloud, for he is a god,*" etc.

8. A *metonymy* is a figure by which we put the cause for the effect or the effect for the cause; as, when we say, "*He reads Milton;*" we mean Milton's *works*. "*Gray hairs* should be respected;" that is, *old age*.

9. *Synecdoche* is the putting of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part, a definite number for an indefinite, etc.; as, the

waves for the sea, the head for the person, and ten thousand for any great number. This figure is nearly allied to *metonymy*

10. *Antithesis*, or *contrast*, is a figure by which different or contrary objects are contrasted, to make them show one another to advantage. Thus, Solomon contrasts the timidity of the wicked with the courage of the righteous, when he says, "*The wicked flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous are bold as a lion.*"

11. *Climax*, or *amplification*, is the heightening of all the circumstances of an object or action which we wish to place in a strong light; as, "Who shall separate us from the love of Christ? Shall tribulation, or distress, or persecution, or famine, or nakedness, or peril, or sword? Nay," etc. See also Rom. viii. 38, 39.

12. *Exclamation* is a figure that is used to express some strong emotion of the mind; as, "*Oh! the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God!*"

13. *Interrogation* is a figure by which we express the emotion of our mind, and enliven our discourse, by proposing questions, thus, "*Hath the Lord said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?*"

14. *Paralepsis*, or *omission*, is a figure by which the speaker pretends to conceal what he is really declaring and strongly enforcing; as, "Horatius was once a very promising young gentleman, but in process of time he became so addicted to gaming, *not to mention his drunkenness and debauchery*, that he soon exhausted his estate, and ruined his constitution.

15. *Apostrophe* is a turning off from the subject, to address some other person or thing; as, "*Death is swallowed up in victory; O Death, where is thy sting?*"

POETIC LICENSE.

553. Besides the deviations from the usual form and construction of words, noted under the figures of Etymology and Syntax, there are still others, which can not be classed under proper heads, and which, from being used mostly in poetic composition, are commonly called *poetic licenses*. These are such as the following—

554. 1. In poetry, words, idioms, and phrases, are often used, which would be inadmissible in prose; as,

* A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year."

"By fountain clear, or spangled starlight *shewn*."
 "Shall I receive by gift, what of my own,
 When and where *likes me* best, I can command?"
 "Thy voice we hear, and thy *behests* obey."
 "The *whiles*, the vaulted shrine around.
 Seraphic wires were heard to sound."
 "On the first friendly bank he *throws him* down."
 "I'll seek the solitude he sought,
 And *stretch me* where he lay."
 "Not Hector's *self* should want an equal foe."

2. More violent and peculiar ellipses are allowable in poetry than in prose; as,

"*Suffice*, to-night, these orders to obey."
 "Time *is* our tedious song should here have ending."
 "For *is* there aught in sleep *can* charm the wise?"
 "'T *is* Fancy, in her fiery car,
 Transports me to the thickest war."
 "Who never fasts, no banquet e'er enjoys."
 "Bliss is the same in subject as in king,
 In *who* obtain defence, or who defend."

3. Adjectives in poetry are often elegantly constructed with nouns which they do not strictly qualify; as,

"The *ploughman* homeward plods his *weary* way."
 "The *tenants* of the *warbling* shade."
 "And *drowsy* tinklings lull the distant *folds*."

4. The rules of grammar are often violated by the poets. A noun and its pronoun are often used in reference to the same verb; as,

"It ceased, the melancholy *sound*."
 "My *banks they* are furnished with bees."

5. An adverb is often admitted between the verb and *to*, the sign of the infinitive; as,

"To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell,
 To *slowly* trace the forest's shady scenes."

6. A common poetic license consists in employing *or* and *nor* instead of *either* and *neither*; as,

—————"And first
Or on the listed plain, or stormy sea."
"Nor grief nor fear shall break my rest."

7. Intransitive verbs are often made transitive, and adjectives used like abstract nouns; as,

"The lightnings *flash* a larger curve."
"Still in harmonious intercourse they *lived*
The rural day, and *talked* the flowing heart."
"Meanwhile, whate'er of *beautiful* or *new*,
By chance, or search, was offered to his view,
He scanned with curious eye."

8. Greek, Latin, and other foreign idioms, are allowable in poetry, though inadmissible in prose; as,

"He *knew* to sing, and *build* the lofty rhyme."
"Give me to seize rich Nestor's shield of gold."
"There are, who, deaf to mad ambition's call,
Would shrink to hear the obstreperous trump of fame."
"Yet to their general's voice they all obeyed."
—————"Never since created man
Met with embodied force."

PART FOURTH.

PROSODY.

555. PROSODY treats of *Elocution* and *Versification*.

§ 93. ELOCUTION.

556. ELOCUTION is correct pronunciation, or the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking.

557. In order to read and speak with grace and effect, attention must be paid to the proper *pitch* of the voice, the *accent* and *quantity* of the syllables, and to *emphasis*, *pauses*, and *tones*.

558.—1. In the *PITCH* and management of the voice, it should be neither too high nor too low; it should be distinct and clear; the utterance neither too quick nor too slow, and neither too varied nor too monotonous.

559.—2. *ACCENT* is the laying of a particular stress of voice on a certain syllable in a word, as the syllable *vir-* in *vir'tue*, *vir'tuous*.

560.—3. The *QUANTITY* of a syllable is the relative time which is required to pronounce it. A long syllable, in quantity, is equal to two short ones. Thus, *pine*, *tube*, *note*, require to be sounded as long again as *pin*, *tub*, *not*. In English versification, an *accented* syllable is *long*, an *unaccented* one is *short*.

561.—4. *EMPHASIS* means that greater stress of the voice which we lay on some particular word or words, in order to mark their superior importance in the sentence, and thereby the better to convey the idea intended by the writer or speaker.

562.—5. *PAUSES*, or rests, are cessations of the voice, in order to enable the reader or speaker to take breath; and to give the hearer a distinct perception of the meaning, not only of each sentence, but of the whole discourse.

563.—6. **TONES** consist in the modulation of the voice, and the notes, or variations of sound, which we employ in speaking, to express the different sentiments, emotions, or feelings, intended.

*. A full consideration of these topics, in a work of this kind, would be as impracticable as it would be out of place, since it would require a volume for that purpose. They are fully treated of and exemplified in works on elocution; a subject which is, or should be, taken up as a separate branch of study.

§ 94. VERSIFICATION.

564. **VERSIFICATION** is the art of arranging words into poetical lines, or *verses*.

565. A *Verse*, or *Poetical Line*, consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to fixed rules.

566. A *Couplet*, or *Distich*, consists of two lines or verses taken together, whether rhyming with each other or not. A *Triplet* consists of three lines rhyming together.

567. A *Stanza* is a combination of several verses or lines, varying in number according to the poet's fancy and constituting a regular division of a poem or song. This is often incorrectly called a *verse*.

568. *Rhyme* is the similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines arranged in a certain order. Poetry, the verses of which have this similarity is sometimes called *Rhyme*.

569. *Blank Verse* is the name given to that species of poetry which is without rhyme.

FEEET.

570. *Feet* are the smaller portions into which a line is divided; each of which consists of two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

571. In English versification, an *accented* syllable is accounted *long*; an *unaccented* syllable, *short*. In the following examples, a straight line (—) over a syllable shows that it is accented, and a curved line, or breve (˘), that it is unaccented.

572. Monosyllables, which, when alone, are regarded as without accent, often receive it when placed in a poetical line, and are long or short, according as they are with or without the accent: thus,

“To rouse him with the spur and rein,
With more than rapture's ray.”

In the ancient languages, each syllable has a certain quantity, long or short, independent of accent, for which there are certain definite rules. In this, they differ widely from the English.

573. *Metre*, or *Measure*, is the arrangement of a certain number of poetical feet in a verse or line.

1. When a line has the proper metre, or number of feet, it is called *Acatalectic*.

2. When it is deficient, it is called *Catalectic*.

4. When it has a redundant syllable, it is called *Hypercatalectic*, or *Hypermeter*.

574. A line consisting of one foot is called *monometer*; of two, *dimeter*; of three, *trimeter*; of four, *tetrameter*; of five, *pentameter*; of six, *hexameter*; of seven, *heptameter*.

575. *Scanning* is dividing a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

576. All feet in poetry are reducible to eight kinds; four of *two* syllables, and four of *three*, as follows:

I. FEET OF TWO SYLLABLES,

1. An Iambus — —; as, děfěnd.
2. A Trochee — —; as, nōblě.
3. A Spondee — —; as, vāin măn.
4. A Pyrrhic — —; as, ōn ă (hill).

II. FEET OF THREE SYLLABLES.

1. An Anapæst — — —; as, întěrcěde.
2. A Dactyl — — —; as, dūrăblě.
3. An Amphibrach — — —; as, ăbūdănt.
4. A Tribach — — —; as, (to)lě răblě.

577. Of all these, the *principal* are the *Iambus*, *Trochee*, *Anapæst*, and *Dactyl*. The other four feet are used chiefly in connection with these, in order to give variety to measure.

578. A *Trochee* has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented; as, *nôble*, *mûsic*.

579. An *Iambus* has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented; as, *âdôre*, *dêfend*.

580. A *Spondee* has both the words or syllables accented; as, *vain mán*.

581. A *Pyrrhic* has both the words or syllables unaccented; as, *ôn â (hill)*.

582. A *Dactyl* has the first syllable accented, and the two last unaccented; as, *virtuôus*.

583. An *Amphibrach* has the first and the last syllable unaccented, and the middle one accented; as, *cônténtmēt*.

584. An *Anapæst* has the first two syllables unaccented, and the last one accented; as, *intêrcôde*.

585. A *Tribrach* has all its syllables unaccented; as, *nu | mē râblē*.

586. A verse is usually named from the name of the foot which predominates in it; thus, *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, &c.

I. IAMBIC VERSE.

587. An Iambic verse consists of iambuses, and consequently has the accent on the *second*, *fourth*, *sixth*, &c. syllable. It has different metres, as follows:

1. *Iambic Monometer*. The shortest form of Iambic verse consists of one iambus; as,

How bright
The light!

It sometimes assumes an additional or hypermeter syllable; as,

Cônsënt | ing,
Rêpënt | ing.

We have no poem of this measure, but it is sometimes introduced into stanzas.

2. Iambic Dimeter. The second form of our Iambic is also too short to be continued through any number of lines. It consists of two iambuses ; as,

With Thēe | wē rise,
With Thēe | wē rēign,
And ēm | pīres gāin
Bēyōnd | thē skies.

This form sometimes assumes an hypermeter syllable ; as,

Upōn | ā mōun | tāin,
Bēside | ā fōun | tāin.

3. Iambic Trimeter. The third form consists of three iambuses, and is continued only for a few lines; as,

In plā | cēs fār | ōr neār,
Or fā | mōus ōr | ōbscūre,
Whēre whōle | sōme is | thē air,
Or whēre | thē mōst impūre.

This form sometimes admits an additional short syllable ; as,

Oūr hēarts | nō lōng | ōr lān | guish.

4. Iambic Tetrameter. The fourth form may extend through a considerable number of verses ; it consists of four iambuses ; as,

Hōw sleēp | thē brāve | whō sīnk | tō rēst,
By āll thēir cōuntry's wishēs blēst!

This also admits an hypermeter syllable ; as,

Frōm hōuse | wīfe cāres | ā mī | nūte bōr | rōw.

5. Iambic Pentameter. The fifth species, or *Heroic* measure, consists of five iambuses ; as,

Yē glit | t'ring tōwns, | with wēalth | and splēn | doūr crōwn'd-
Yē fields, where summer spreads profusion round;
Yē lakes, whose vessels catch the busy gale;
Yē bending swains, that dress thē flow'ry vale.

This verse without rhyme constitutes the common blank verse. Such is Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

The *Elegiac Stanza* consists of four lines pentameter rhyming alternately ; as,

Thē cūr | fēw tōlls | thē knēll | of pārt | īng dāy,
 The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea;
 The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
 And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

This measure frequently admits an additional syllable ; as,

Wōrth mākes | thē mān, | thē wānt | of it | thē fēl | lōw,
 The rest is nought but leather or prunello.

6. *Iambic Hexameter*. The sixth form of our Iambic is commonly called the *Alexandrine* measure ; it consists of *six* iambuses.

Fōr thōu | ārt būt | of dūst : bē hūm | blē ānd | bē wīse.

The Alexandrine is sometimes introduced into heroic rhyme, and particularly into stanzas after the manner of Spenser, in his "Faery Queen;" and when used sparingly, and with judgment, occasions an agreeable variety.

To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell,
 To slowly trace the forest's shady scene,
 Where things that own not man's dominion dwell,
 And mortal foot hath ne'er, or rarely been;
 To climb the trackless mountain all unseen,
 With the wild flock that never needs a fold;
 Alone o'er steeps and foaming falls to lean;
 This is not solitude; 'tis but to hold
Converse | with Na | ture's charms, | and view | her stores |
unroll'd.

This also admits an hypermeter syllable ; as,

Thē shēp | hērd hīm | pūrsūes, | ānd tō | his dōg | dōth hōl | lōw.

7. *Iambic Heptameter*. The seventh and last form of Iambic verse consists of *seven* iambuses.

Thē Lōrd | dēscēnd | ēd frōm | ābōve, | ānd bōw'd | thē hēa |
 vēns hīgh.

This was anciently written in one line ; but it is now divided into two, the first containing four feet, and the second, three ; as,

Thou didst, | O migh | ty God ! | exist |
 Ere time | began | its race ;
 Before the ample elements
 Fill'd up the void of space.

This is what is called *Common Metre*. The *Short Metre Stanza* consists of four lines, of which the *first*, *second* and *fourth* contain *three* feet, and the *third*, four. *Long Metre* has four feet in each line, as above (No. 4).

II. TROCHAIC VERSE.

588. *Trochaic* verse consists of trochees, and consequently has the accent on the *first*, *third*, *fifth*, &c. syllable.

1. *Trochaic Monometer*. The shortest form consists of one foot ; as,

Cheëring,
 Veëring.

It sometimes admits an additional long syllable ; as,

Tūmūlt | cēase,
 Sink tō | pēace.

2. *Trochaic Dimeter*. The next form contains *two* trochees ; as,

Wishēs | rīsīng,
 Thoughts sur | prīsīng,
 Pleasures | courting,
 Charms trans | porting.

Sometimes this form admits an additional syllable ; as.

In thē | dāys of | ōld,
 Stōries | plainly | tōld.

3. *Trochaic Trimeter*. The third species contains *three* trochees ; as,

Whēn oūr | hēarts āre | mōūning.

This form frequently has an additional syllable ; as,

Vital | spark of | heav'nly | flame,
Quit, oh | quit this | mortal | frame!

4. *Trochaic Tetrameter.* The fourth form consists of four trochees ; as,

Round us | roars the | tempest | louder.

This form sometimes assumes an additional syllable; as

Where the | wood is | waving | green and | high.

5. *Trochaic Pentameter.* The fifth species is not very common ; it is composed of five trochees ; as,

All that | walk on | foot or | ride in | chariots,
All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. *Trochaic Hexameter.* The sixth and last form consists of six trochees ; as,

On a | mountain, | stretch'd be | neath a | hoary | willow,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

Both the *fifth* and *sixth* species sometimes take an additional syllable, in which case the line is usually divided into two ; thus,

5. Hail to | thee, blithe | spirit! | bird thou | never | wert.

Divided thus,

Hail to | thee, blithe | spirit!
Bird thou | never | wert.

6. Night and | morning | were at | meeting, | over | Water | loo

Divided thus,

Night and | morning | were at | meeting,
Over | Water | loo.

III. ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

589. *Anapæstic* verse consists chiefly of anapæsts, and, when pure, has the accent on every third syllable.

1. *Anapæstic Monometer.* This measure consists of one foot ; as,

In a sweet
Resonance.

2. *Anapæstic Dimeter*. The second form of Anapæstic verse consists of *two* anapæsts ; as,

Bût his cõu | rãge, 'gãn fail,
For no arts | could avail.

Sometimes this form assumes an additional short syllable ; as,

Thên his cõu | rãge, gãn fail | him
For no arts could avail him.

3. *Anapæstic Trimeter*. The third species, much used both in solemn and cheerful subjects, consists of *three* anapæsts, and seldom takes an additional syllable.

O yê wõods, | sprêad yõur brãnch | ës äpãce,
To your deep | est recess | es I fly;
I would hide with the beasts of the chase,
I would vanish from every eye.

4. *Anapæstic Tetrameter*. The fourth consists of *four* anapæsts ; as,

Mãy I gõ | vèrn my pãs | siõns with äb | solûte swãy,
And grow wiser and better as life wears away.

This form sometimes contains an additional syllable; as,

On thê warm | cheêk òf yõuth, | smiles änd rõ | ës äre
blënd | ing.

IV. DACTYLIC VERSE.

590. *Dactylic* verse consists chiefly of dactyls, and has the following varieties :

1. *Dactylic Monometer*. This consists of one foot, as,
Feãrfully,
Teãrfully.

This measure takes an additional long syllable, as,

Ovèr ä | mèäd,
Prickïng his | stèed.

2. *Dactylic Dimeter*. This consists of *two* dactyls; as,

Frèe frõm sã | tiëty,
Care and an | xiety,
Charms in variety
Fall to his | shãre.

The same with an additional long syllable ; as,

Cōvēr'd with | snōw wās thē | *vāle* ;

Sad was the | shriek of the | *gāle*.

3. *Dactylic Trimeter*. This form consists of *three* dactyls ; as,

Weāring ā | wāy in his | youthfūlnēss,

Loveliness, | beauty and | truthfulness.

This also may have an additional long syllable ; as,

Wēary ānd | wōrn, shē hās | waitēd fōr | *yēars*,

Keeping her | grief ever | green with her | *tears*.

Dactylic Tetrameter, Pentameter, and Hexameter, are seldom used ; when used, they are constructed by making the line consist of *four, five, or six* dactylic feet.

In Dactylic verse the last foot is not always a dactyl, a trochee being often used instead of it, and sometimes a single long syllable, making a hypermeter line in dactylic stanzas, as in the following :

Fāstēr cōme, | fāstēr cōme,

Fāstēr ānd | fāstēr ;

Chief vassal, | page and groom,

Tenant and | master.

Pēace tō thē | isle of thē | ocean,

Pēace tō thy | brēezēs ānd | billōws.

Hail tō tiffē | Chief whō in | triūmph ād | vāncēs !

Hōnōr'd ānd | blēss'd bē thē | ēvēr-grēen | *pine* !

Lōng māy thē | trēe in his | bānnēr thāt | glāncēs,

Flōurish thē | shēltēr ānd | grāce of our | *line*.

591. The following is an example of *dactyls* and *spondees* alternately :

Grēen in thē | wildwōod, | prōudly thē | tāll trēe | lōōks on thē
| brōwn plāin.

The following is an example of pure dactylic hexameter :

Ovēr thē | vāllēy, with | spēed like thē | wind, āll thē |
stēeds wēre ā | gāllōping.

MIXED VERSES.

592. The preceding are the different kinds of the *principal* feet, in their simple forms. They are capable of numerous variations, by the intermixture of those feet with one another, and by the admission of the secondary feet, as will be seen by the following examples

THE PYRRHIC MIXED WITH THE IAMBIC.

And tō | thē deā | my will | ing sōul | shall gō.

THE SPONDEE WITH THE IAMBIC.

Forbēar | grēat mān, | in ārms | rēnōwn'd, | forbēar.

THE TROCHEE WITH THE IAMBIC.

Tyrānt | ānd slāve, | thōse nāmes | ōf hāte | ānd fēar.

THE FOLLOWING CONSISTS OF AN IAMBIC AND TWO ANAPÆSTS.

My sōr | rōws I thēn | might āssuāge
In thē wāys | ōf rēli | giōn ānd trūth;
Might learn | from the wis | dom of age,
And be cheer'd | by the sal | lies of youth.

A pleasing movement is produced by intermingling *iambuses* and *anapæsts*, as in the following lines:

"Yē māy trāce | my stēps | o'er thē wā | kēning ēārth,
By thē winds | whīch tēll | ōf thē vī | ōlēt's birth,
By thē prim | rose stars | ōf thē shā | dōwy grāss,
By thē grēen | lēaves ō | pēning | ās I pāss."

V. OF BLANK VERSE.

593. Our blank verse may be reckoned a noble, bold and unencumbered species of versification, and in several cases it possesses many advantages over rhyme. It allows the lines to run into one another with perfect freedom; hence it is adapted to subjects of dignity and force, which demand more free and manly numbers than can be obtained in rhyme. Blank verse is written in the heroic measure; consisting of ten syllables. The principal poets in this species of composition are Milton, Thomson, Armstrong, Akenside, Cowper, and Pollok.

§ 95. COMPOSITION.

594. COMPOSITION is the art of expressing our sentiments in spoken or written language. It is of two kinds, *Prose* and *Poetry*.

595. *Prose* compositions are those in which the thoughts are expressed in the natural order, in common and ordinary language.

596. *Poetic* compositions are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed in measured verse, in loftier and more inverted style, by words and figures selected and arranged so as to please the ear, and captivate the fancy.

597. In both of these, speech or discourse is either *direct* or *indirect*.

598. *Direct* discourse is that in which a writer or speaker delivers his own sentiments.

599. *Indirect* or *oblique* discourse is that in which a person relates, in his own language, what another speaker or writer said.

600. In the *first*, when the speaker refers to himself, he uses the *first* person *I* or *we*. When he refers to the person or persons addressed, he uses the *second* person *thou*, *you*, etc.

601. In the *second* or indirect discourse, whether the speaker is reported as referring to himself, or to those whom he addresses, the third person is used in either case; as, *he*, *she*, *they*, etc. An example will best illustrate the distinction; thus:

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

602. Then Paul stood in the midst of Mars-hill and said: "Ye men of Athens, I perceive that in all things ye are too superstitious; for as I passed by and beheld your devotions, I found an altar with this inscription: 'TO THE UNKNOWN GOD.' Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

603. The same, reported in indirect or oblique discourse, would run thus:

Then Paul, standing on Mars-hill, told the men of Athens *he* perceived that 'in all things *they* were too superstitious; for as *he* passed by and beheld *their* devotions, *he* found an altar with this inscription: "TO THE UNKNOWN GOD." Whom, therefore, *they* ignorantly worshipped, him declared *he* unto them.

604. When the reporter, the speaker reported, and the person or persons addressed, are different in gender or number, there is no danger of ambiguity. But when in these respects they are the same, ambiguity is unavoidable, from the same pronoun being used in the progress of discourse, to designate different persons. Hence, to prevent mistakes, it is often necessary to insert the name or designation of the person meant by the pronoun. An example will best illustrate this also

"Then the son went to his father and said to him, [*direct*] 'I have sinned against Heaven and in thy sight.'"

"Then the son went to his father and said to him, [*indirect*] that he [the son] had sinned against Heaven and in his [his father's] sight."

It will at once be perceived, that, without the words enclosed in brackets, for explanation, it would be impossible to tell whether by the word *he*, the *father* or the *son* was intended; so also with respect to the word *his*. Hence, when by the *indirect* discourse, ambiguity is unavoidable, it is generally better to have recourse to the *direct* form, and quote the writer's or speaker's own words, as in (602).

605. The principal kinds of *prose* compositions are, *narrative, letters, memoirs, history, biography, essays, philosophy, sermons, novels, speeches, and orations.*

606. The principal kinds of *poetical* compositions are, the *epigram, the epitaph, the sonnet, pastoral poetry, didactic poetry, satires, descriptive poetry, elegy, lyric poetry, dramatic poetry, and epic poetry* [§ 91].

THE USE OF GRAMMAR IN COMPOSITION.

607. To speak and write with propriety, in every species of composition, is an attainment of no small importance; and to lead to this attainment is the business of grammar. The grammar of a language is just a compilation of rules and directions, agreeably to which that language is spoken or written. These rules, however, are not the invention of the grammarian, nor dependent on his authority for their validity. As it is the business of the philosopher, not to *make* a law of Nature, nor to *dictate* how her operations should be performed, but, by close observation, to ascertain what those laws are, and to state them for the information of others; so the business of the grammarian is, not to *make* the laws of language, for language is before grammar, but to observe and note those principles, and forms, and modes of speech, by which men are accustomed to express their sentiments, and to arrange the results of his observation into a system of rules for the guidance and assistance of others. It is obvious, then, that the ultimate principle or *test* to which the rules laid down by the grammarian must conform, is THE BEST USAGE.

608. Hence, when the inquiry is whether a particular word or form of speech is *right*, is *good English*, the only question to be decided is, "Is it according to the *best usage*?" On this subject, however, it has been made a question, "What is the best usage?" The following sentiments, abridged from Dr. Crombie's work on English Etymology and Syntax, seem to be just and comprehensive of this whole subject.

THE LAW OF LANGUAGE.

609. *First.* The **USAGE** which gives law to language, in order to establish its authority, or to entitle its suffrage to our assent, must be *reputable*; by which is meant, not the usage of the court, nor great men, nor merely scientific men, but of those whose works are *esteemed by the public*, and who may therefore be denominated *reputable authors*.

610. *Secondly.* This usage must be *national*. It must not be confined to this or that province or district. "Those," to use Campbell's apposite similitude, "who deviate from the beaten road may be incomparably more numerous than those who travel in it; yet, into whatever number of by-paths the former may be divided, there may not be found in any one of these tracks so many as travel in the king's highway."

611. *Thirdly.* This usage must be *present*. It is difficult to fix with any precision what usage may in all cases be deemed *present*. It is perhaps in this respect different with different compositions. In general, words and forms of speech, which have been long disused, should not be employed. And so, on the contrary, the usage of the present day is not implicitly to be adopted. Mankind are fond of novelty, and there is a fashion in language as there is in dress. Whim, vanity, and affectation, delight in creating new words, and using new forms of phraseology. Now, to adopt every new-fangled upstart at its birth, would argue, not taste, nor judgment, but childish fondness for singularity and novelty. But should any of these maintain its ground, and receive the sanction of reputable usage, it must in that case be received.

612. The usage, then, which gives law to language, and which is generally denominated *good usage*, must be *reputable, national, and present*. It happens, however, that "good usage" is not always uniform in her decisions, and that in unquestionable authorities are found far different modes of expression. In such cases, the following **CANONS**, proposed by Dr. Campbell, will be of service in enabling to decide to which phraseology the preference ought to be given. They are given nearly in the words of the author:

613. **CANON 1.** When the use is divided as to any particular words or phrases, and when one of the expressions is susceptible of a *different* meaning, while the other admits of only *one* signification, the expression which is strictly *univocal* should be preferred.

614. **CANON 2.** In doubtful cases, *analogy* should be regarded.

615. **CANON 3.** When expressions are in other re-

spects equal, that should be preferred which is *most agreeable to the ear*.

616. CANON 4. When none of the preceding rules takes place, regard should be had to *simplicity*.

617. But though no expression or mode of speech can be justified which is not sanctioned by usage, yet the converse does not follow, that every phraseology sanctioned by usage should be retained. In many such cases, custom may properly be checked by criticism, whose province it is, not only to remonstrate against the introduction of any word or phraseology which may be either unnecessary or contrary to analogy, but also to exclude whatever is reprehensible, though in general use. It is by this, her prerogative, that languages are gradually refined and improved. In exercising this authority, she can not pretend to degrade, instantly, any phraseology which she may deem objectionable; but she may, by repeated remonstrances, gradually effect its dismissal. Her decisions in such cases may be properly regulated by the following rules, laid down by the same author:

618. RULE 1. All words and phrases, particularly harsh and not absolutely necessary, should be dismissed.

619. RULE 2. When the etymology plainly points to a different signification from what the word bears, propriety and simplicity require its dismissal.

620. RULE 3. When words become obsolete, or are never used but in particular phrases, they should be repudiated, as they give the style an air of vulgarity and cant, when this general disuse renders them obscure.

621. RULE 4. All words and phrases which, analyzed grammatically, include a solecism, should be dismissed.

622. RULE 5. All expressions which, according to the established rules of language, either have no meaning, or involve a contradiction, or, according to the fair construction of the words, convey a meaning different from the intention of the speaker, should be dismissed.

623. In order to write any language with grammatical purity three things are required,

1. That the words be all of that language. The violation of this rule is called a *barbarism*.

2. That they be construed and arranged according to the rules of syntax in that language. A violation of this rule is called a *solecism*.

3. That they be employed in that sense which usage has annexed to them. A violation of this rule is called *impropriety*.

624. A *barbarism* is an offence against lexicography. The *solecism* is an offence against the rules of syntax; and the *impropriety* is an offence against lexicography, by mistaking the meaning of words and phrases.

§ 96. HINTS FOR CORRECT AND ELEGANT WRITING.

625. Correct and elegant writing depends partly upon the choice of words, and partly upon the form and structure of sentences.

I. In so far as respects single words, the chief things to be observed, are *Purity*, *Propriety*, and *Precision*.

PURITY.

626. Purity consists in the rejection of such words and phrases as are not strictly English, nor in accordance with the practice of good writers and speakers.

1. Avoid foreign words and modes of expression; as, *Fraicheur*, *politesse*; he repents *him* of his folly.

2. Avoid obsolete and unauthorized words; as, *Albeit*, *aforetime*, *inspector*, *judgmatical*.

EXERCISES.

The person is without encumbrment. In the country, we associate with none but the bettermost sort of people. Snails exclude their horns, and therewith explore their way. Methinks till now I never heard a sound more dreary. We walked adown the river side. Peradventure he may call to-morrow. He is a very impopular speaker. I like his great candidness of temper.

PROPRIETY.

627. Propriety consists in the use of such words as are best adapted to express our meaning.

1. Avoid low and provincial expressions; as, *to get into a scrape*.

2. In writing prose, reject words that are merely poetical; as, *this morn*; the celestial *orbs*.

3. Avoid technical terms, unless you write to those who perfectly understand them.

4. Do not use the same word too frequently, or in different senses; as, the king communicated his intention to the minister, *who* disclosed it to the secretary, *who* made it known to the public; His own *reason* might have suggested better *reasons*.

5. Supply words that are wanting, and necessary to complete the sense; thus, instead of "this action increased his former ser-

vices," say, this action increased the *merit* of his former services.

6. Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions; as, his *memory* shall be lost on the earth.

7. Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions; as, I have an *opaque* idea of what you mean.

EXERCISES.

The composure of this psalm is attributed to David. They will meet at eve. Regard should be paid to the pupils' intended avocations. The observation of the Sabbath is incumbent upon every Christian. The negligence of this leaves us exposed to uncommon levity. He put an end to his own existence. I propose to give a general view of the subject. I wonder if he will come. He feels none of the sorrows that usually arrive at man. War should be so managed as to remember that its only end is peace. When Johnson was ill, he composed a prayer to deprecate God's mercy. There are both more and more important truths. He lives in a lone cottage. The Latin tongue in its purity was never in Britain. Imprudent associations disqualify us for the instruction or reproof of others.

PRECISION.

628. Precision rejects the superfluous words.

1. Avoid tautology; as, "his *faithfulness* and *fidelity* were unequalled."

2. Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonymous, thus, instead of, "though his actions and intentions were good, he lost his *character*;" say "he lost his *reputation*."

EXERCISES.

I took some wine and some water, and mixed them both together. He wandered throughout the whole city. They abhorred and detested being in debt. This man, on all occasions, treated those around him with great haughtiness and disdain. His wealth and riches being collected and accumulated in meanness, were squandered in riot and extravagance. Such conduct showed a marked and obvious intention to deceive and abuse us. He had proceeded but a short way on his journey, when he returned home again.

II. With respect to sentences, *Clearness, Unity, Strength*, and a proper application of the *Figures of Speech*, are necessary.

CLEARNESS.

629. Clearness demands a proper arrangement of words.

1. Adverbs, relative pronouns, and explanatory phrases, must be placed as near as possible to the words which they affect, and in such a situation as the sense requires.

2. In prose, a poetic collocation must be avoided.

3. Pronouns must be so used as clearly to indicate the word for which they stand.

EXERCISES.

By the articles subsisting between us, on the day of marriage, you agreed to pay down the sum of eight thousand pounds. Not to exasperate him, I only spoke a very few words. It has not a word, says Pope, but what the author religiously thinks in it. It is true what he says, but it is not applicable to the point. Had he died before, would not then this art have been wholly unknown? Most nations, not even excepting the Jews, were prone to idolatry. He will soon weary the company, who is himself wearied.

UNITY.

630. Unity retains one predominant object through a sentence, or a series of clauses.

1. Separate into distinct sentences, such clauses as have no immediate connection.
2. The principal words must, throughout a sentence, be the most prominent; and the leading nominative should, if possible, be the subject of every clause.
3. Avoid the introduction of parentheses, except when a lively remark may be thrown in, without too long suspending the sense of what goes before.

EXERCISES.

Desires or pleasure usher in temptation, and the growth of disorderly passions is forwarded. The notions of Lord Sunderland were always good, but he was a man of great expense. A short time after this injury, he came to himself; and the next day they put him on board a ship, which conveyed him first to Corinth, and thence to the island of *Egina*. He who performs every employment in its due place and season, suffers no part of time to escape without profit; and thus his days become multiplied, and much of life is enjoyed in little space. Never delay till to-morrow, (for to-morrow is not yours; and though you should live to enjoy it, you must not overload it with a burden not its own,) what reason and conscience tell you ought to be performed to-day.

STRENGTH.

631. Strength gives to every word and every member its due importance.

1. Avoid tautology, and reject all superfluous words and members. In the following sentence, the word printed in *italics* should be omitted; "*being* conscious of his own integrity, he disdained submission."
2. Place the most important words in the situation in which they will make the strongest impression.
3. A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.
4. When two things are compared or contrasted with each other, where either resemblance or opposition is to be expressed, some resemblance in the language and construction should be preserved.

5. A sentence should not be concluded with a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, unless it be emphatic.

EXERCISES.

It is six months ago, since I paid a visit to my relations. Suspend your censure so long, till your judgment be wisely formed. The reason why he spoke as he did, he never explained. If I mistake not, I think he has made great improvement since I last saw him. Those two gentleman appear both to be foreigners. I fear this is the last time that we shall ever meet. How many are there, by whom these tidings of good news were never heard. This measure may afford some profit, and furnish some amusement. Thought and language act and re-act mutually upon each other. Sinful pleasures blast the opening prospects of human felicity, and degrade human honor. Generosity is a splendid virtue, which many persons are very fond of? As no one is without his failings, so few want good qualities.

632.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

1. Figurative language must be used sparingly, and never, except when it serves to illustrate or enforce what is said.

2. Figures of speech, when used, should be such as appear natural, not remote or foreign from the subject, and not pursued too far.

3. Literal and figurative language ought never to be blended together.

4. When figurative language is used, the same figure should be preserved throughout, and different figures never jumbled together.

EXERCISES.

No human happiness is so serene as not to contain some alloy. I intend to make use of these words in the thread of my speculations. Hope, the balm of life, darts a ray of light through the thickest gloom. Let us keep our mouths with a bridle, and steer our vessel so as to avoid the rocks and shoals which meet us at every step. We are all embarked on a troubled sea, and every step of our journey brings us into new perils. Let us keep alive the flame of devotion in the soul, and not suffer our minds to sink into utter indifference about spiritual matters.

TRANSPOSITION AND VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

633. As a preparatory step to the important business of composition, the pupil, after he has acquired a knowledge of grammar, may be exercised with great advantage upon the transposition of words and members in sentences, so as to try in how many different ways the same thought or sentiment may be expressed. This will give him a considerable command of language, and prove, at the same time, a source of considerable mental cultivation. It is often necessary to give an entirely new turn to an expression, before a sentence can be rendered elegant or even perspicuous.

There are chiefly four ways in which the mode of expressing a thought may be varied.

1. By changing an active into a passive, or a passive into an active verb; as, The sun *dissolves* the snow; The snow *is dissolved* by the sun.

2. By inversions or transpositions, which consist in changing the order in which the words stand in the sentence; as, Competence may be acquired by industry; By industry, competence may be acquired.

3. By changing an affirmative into a negative, or a negative into an affirmative, of an entirely contrary character; as, Virtue promotes happiness; Virtue does not promote misery.

4. By either a partial or an entire change of the words employed to express any sentiment; as, Diligence and application are the best means of improvement; Nothing promotes improvement like diligence and application.

EXERCISES ON TRANSPOSITION.

The Roman state evidently declined, in proportion to the increase of luxury. I am willing to remit all that is past, provided it can be done with safety. A good man has respect to the feelings of others in all that he says or does. Bravely to contend for a good cause is noble; silently to suffer for it, is heroic. Provided he is himself in comfortable circumstances, the selfish man has no concern about the circumstances of others. The man who can make light of the sufferings of others, is himself entitled to no compassion. Sloth is one of man's deadliest enemies. He who made light spring from primeval darkness, will, at last, make order rise from the seeming confusion of the world.

EXAMPLE OF TRANSPOSITION.

The Roman state evidently declined, in proportion to the increase of luxury. In proportion to the increase of luxury, the Roman state evidently declined. The Roman state, in proportion to the increase of luxury, evidently declined.

EXERCISES ON VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

His conduct was less praiseworthy than his sister's. It is better to be moved by false glory, than not to be moved at all. I shall attend the meeting, if I can do it with convenience. He who improves in modesty, as he improves in knowledge, has an undoubted claim to greatness of mind. The spirit of true religion breathes gentleness and affability. There is no such obstacle to the attainment of excellence, as the power of producing, with facility, what is tolerably good. Industry is not only the instrument of improvement, but the foundation of pleasure. A wolf, let into the sheep-fold, will devour the sheep.

EXAMPLE OF VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

His conduct was less praiseworthy than his sister's. His sister's conduct was more praiseworthy than his. His sister's mode

of acting was entitled to more praise than his. His conduct was less entitled to praise, than that of his sister, etc.

Another exercise, not destitute of utility as a foundation for composition, consists in giving the pupil, especially if very young a list of words, with directions to form from them such sentences as shall contain these words.

EXERCISES.

Construct a number of such sentences as shall each contain one or more of the following words: Contentment, behavior, consideration, elevation, distance, application, respect, duty, intercourse evidence, social, bereavement, nonsensical, absurdity, elucidate consternation, temperance, luxury, disarm, expatiate, etc.

LETTERS.

634. One of the simplest and yet most useful species of composition, is letter-writing. This species of composition may be practised either by way of real correspondence between those pursuing the same studies, or it may consist of letters written to imaginary correspondents. The following are a few topics adapted to compositions of this latter kind:

Letter 1st. Write to a friend at a distance. State to him the object of your writing. Tell him what studies you are pursuing, and how you like them. Mention how yourself and friends are. Give an account of some of the changes which have lately been made, or are now making in your neighborhood; and conclude by expressing a desire either to see him, or hear from him soon.

Letter 2d. Write to a companion an account of a long walk which you lately had. Tell him whether you were alone or in company. Mention what particular things struck you by the way; and enumerate all the incidents that occurred of any moment.

Letter 3d. Write to a friend who is supposed to have sent you a present of books, and thank him for such kindness. Tell him the use you intend to make of them; and inform him to what particular books you are most partial. Conclude by giving some account of those you have lately been reading, and how you like them.

Letter 4th. Write to a friend supposed to be going abroad. Describe to him how you would feel if called to leave your friends and your native country. Express your regret at losing him, but state your hope that you will not forget each other when seas roll between you. Request him to write to you frequently; and advise him to be careful about his health, and of the society he keeps.

Letter 5th. Write to a friend at a distance; and give him an account of a sail which you lately had in a steam-boat. Mention

what places you visited; and state the objects that most delighted you. Tell him how long you were away, what sort of weather you had, and what were your feelings upon returning home.

Letter 6th. Write to a friend an account of the church you were at last Sabbath. Tell who preached; mention the psalms or hymns that were sung; and the portions of Scripture that were read. State the texts from which the minister preached; and give your opinion of the different sermons.

These have been given as mere specimens of the subjects upon which the student, who has acquired a knowledge of grammar, may be required to write. The prudent and skilful teacher will be enabled to multiply and vary them at pleasure, and to any extent.

REPRODUCTION.

635. Another method of exercising the minds of pupils in composition, consists in reading some simple story or narrative, till such time as they are acquainted with the facts, and then directing them to express these in their own words. A still further, and perhaps even a simpler method, is, to take advantage of a young person's having given some account of what he has either seen, heard, or read, and desire him to commit to writing what he has stated orally.

THEMES.

636. The next step in composition is the writing of regular themes. The subject, however, should always be such as is not above the capacity of the person who is desired to compose; for, if it is, the whole benefit resulting from the exercise will be nullified.

A *theme* is a regular set subject upon which a person is required to write; or the dissertation that has been written upon such a subject. Some of the simplest subjects for themes are those drawn from natural history, or natural philosophy. At all events they should not, in the first instance, be drawn from subjects of an abstruse and abstract character.

637. The following may serve as specimens in this department:

Theme 1st. The horse. 1. Describe what sort of animal the horse is. 2. Tell some of the different kinds. 3. Mention the various ways in which this noble animal is serviceable to man. 4. State what would be the consequence of wanting him. 5. Mention the treatment to which he is entitled, and the cruelty of ill-using such a creature.

Write themes on the cow, the dog, the sheep, and upon poultry, and follow the same plan as that which you followed in writing upon the horse.

Theme 2d. The sun. 1. Begin by stating what the sun is. 2. Tell all you know of its size, figure, and distance from our earth. 3. Mention the effect it has upon the earth, and the benefits we

derive from it. 4. State what would be the consequence if the sun were extinguished; and what our feelings ought to be toward the Supreme Being, for such an object.

Write themes upon the moon, the stars, fire, air, and water; and in all, follow the same plan.

Theme 3d. Day and night. 1. Tell what you mean by day and night. 2. State whether they are always alike long; and what is the advantage arising from their length being different at different seasons. 3. Mention the different purposes for which they are adapted. 4. Say of what the continued succession of day and night is fitted to remind us, and how this should lead us to act.

Write themes upon the different seasons, and upon mountains, rivers, and the tides of the sea; and follow a similar plan in all.

Theme 4th. On Composition. 1. Explain what you mean by this term. 2. Point out the necessity of studying this art, by showing how much it contributes to add to the value of one's knowledge. 3. Mention what is necessary to fit one for composing well. 4. State the means by which skill in this art is to be obtained.

Theme 5th. On Company. 1. Explain what you mean by company. 2. Show how natural it is for man to seek society. 3. State the danger of keeping either too much company, or of keeping bad company. 4. Point out the advantages of good company.

Write themes upon Conversation, Study, Improvement of Time, Choice of Books, Memory, the different Organs of Sense, etc.; and in all follow the same method as you did in writing on Company.

Theme 6th. Narratives. Describe the place or scene of the actions related—the persons concerned in—the time—posture of affairs—state of mind, motives, ends, etc. of the actors;—results.

Write themes upon The discovery of America. The French War. The Revolutionary War. The Battle of Bunker Hill. The French Revolution.

*Theme 7th. Dissertations on remarkable events in sacred or profane history—*The place—the origin—the circumstances—results—moral influence, etc.

Following this or a similar arrangement of parts, write a composition on The Creation—Death of Abel—The Deluge—The World after the Flood—The Tower of Babel—The Israelites in Egypt—Their deliverance from it—The giving of the law from Sinai—The Advent of the Messiah, his death, resurrection—Destruction of Jerusalem, etc.—The Siege of Troy—Rise and Fall of the Roman Empire—The Crusades—The Burning of Moscow—The Battle of Waterloo—The Death of Bonaparte, etc.

Theme 8th. Give an account of some of the most distinguished characters in different ages of the World—Warriors, Statesmen,

Artists, Philosophers, Poets, Orators, Divines, Philanthropists;—mentioning what is known respecting their country, parentage, education, character, principles, exploits, influence on society for good or evil, death.

638. The following list of themes is selected from Parker's Exercises in Composition.

- | | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. On Attention, | 26. On Fortune, | 51. On Ocean, |
| 2. " Adversity, | 27. " Fear, | 52. " Pride, |
| 3. " Ardor of mind, | 28. " Forgiveness, | 53. " Party Spirit, |
| 4. " Art, | 29. " Government, | 54. " Poverty, |
| 5. " Attachment, | 30. " Grammar, | 55. " Principle, |
| 6. " Anger, | 31. " Greatness, true, | 56. " Perseverance, |
| 7. " Air, | 32. " Genius, | 57. " Patriotism, |
| 8. " Benevolence, | 33. " Habit, | 58. " Politeness, |
| 9. " Beauty, | 34. " Honour, | 59. " Providence, |
| 10. " Biography, | 35. " Happiness, | 60. " Punctuality, |
| 11. " Bad Scholar, | 36. " Humility, | 61. " Poetry, |
| 12. " Charity, | 37. " Hypocrisy, | 62. " Piety, |
| 13. " Clemency, | 38. " History, | 63. " Religion, |
| 14. " Compassion, | 39. " Hope, | 64. " Reading, |
| 15. " Conscience, | 40. " Indolence, | 65. " Sincerity, |
| 16. " Constancy, | 41. " Industry, | 66. " Summer, |
| 17. " Carelessness, | 42. " Ingratitude, | 67. " Spring, |
| 18. " Curiosity, | 43. " Justice, | 68. " Sun, |
| 19. " Cheerfulness, | 44. " Learning, | 69. " System, |
| 20. " Contentment, | 45. " Love of Fame, | 70. " Truth, |
| 21. " Diligence, | 46. " Music, | 71. " Time, |
| 22. " Duplicity, | 47. " Moon, | 72. " Talent, |
| 23. " Early rising, | 48. " Novelty, | 73. " Vanity, |
| 24. " Envy, | 49. " Night, | 74. " Virtue, |
| 25. " Friendship, | 50. " Order, | 75. " Wealth |
| 76. Knowledge is Power, | 91. Public Opinion, | |
| 77. Progress of Error, | 92. Diligence ensures success, | |
| 78. Progress of Truth, | 93. Idleness destroys Character, | |
| 79. Government of the Tongue, | 94. Contrivance proves design, | |
| 80. Government of the Temper, | 95. Avoid Extremes, | |
| 81. Government of the Affections, | 96. Visit to an Almshouse. | |
| 82. Local Attachments, | 97. Pleasures of Memory, | |
| 83. The Power of Association, | 98. Example better than Precept, | |
| 84. The Immortality of the Soul, | 99. Misery is wed to Guilt, | |
| 85. The Uses of Knowledge, | 100. Value of Time, | |
| 86. Power of Conscience, | 101. Virtue the way to Happiness, | |
| 87. The Power of Habit, | 102. No one lives for Himself, | |
| 88. Life is Short, | 103. Thou God seest me, | |
| 89. Miseries of Idleness, | 104. Trust not Appearances, | |
| 90. Never too old to learn, | 105. Whatever is, is Right | |
| 106. " An honest man's the noblest work of God." | | |
| 107. Every man the architect of his own fortune. | | |
| 108. Man, " Mysterious link in being's endless chain." | | |
| 109. " A little learning is a dangerous thing." | | |
| 110. How blessings brighten, as they take their flight. | | |
| 111. Advantages derived from the invention of the mariner's compass—of the telescope—the steam engine—the art of printing—of gunpowder | | |
| 112. History of a needle—a cent—a Bible—a beaver hat. | | |
| 113. Description of a voyage to England—Coast of Africa—Constantinople—South America—East Indies—China. | | |

APPENDIX.

I. GRAMMAR.

The object of Grammar, in a general sense, is to investigate the principles of language, and from a careful analysis of these, to lay down a system of rules and principles, by observing which, we may be enabled to express our thoughts in a particular language in a correct and proper manner. Such a collection of rules and principles applicable to the English language, with directions for their use in the most simple, brief, and convenient manner, has been attempted in the preceding pages.

When we speak of Grammar as a system of rules, it is not to be understood that the rules are first established, and the language afterwards modelled in conformity to these. The very reverse is the fact: language is antecedent to grammar. "No grammarian can of his own authority alter the phraseology of any expression, or assign to a word a signification different from that which has been allotted to it by established usage. He must take the language as it is, not as he would wish it to be. He may, indeed, recommend this or that mode of expression, as more agreeable to analogy, but it must remain with the public whether or not his advice be adopted. From the decision of general, reputable, and established usage, there lies no appeal. His business is, to observe the agreement or disagreement of words, the similarity or dissimilarity between different forms of expression, to reduce those that are similar, under the same class, and, by a careful induction of particulars, establish general propositions. Nor is it absolutely necessary that he should know by what means this or that phraseology came into use, or why this or that word forms an exception to a general rule; it is sufficient for his purpose if he does know that it is an exception, and, knowing it, points it out to others.

"By arranging the various rules and principles of a language into a systematic form, permanency is given to what would otherwise be subject to fluctuation, or involved in obscurity; the relative connection and importance of the rules become clearly ascertained, and the whole is rendered more easy of being acquired and retained, and applied with facility and correctness.

"Prior to the publication of Lowth's excellent little grammar, the grammatical study of our own language formed no part of the ordinary method of instruction, and consequently the writings of the best authors were frequently inaccurate. Subsequent to that period, however, attention has been paid to this important subject, and the change that has taken place both in our written and oral language, has evidenced the decided advantages resulting from such a plan.

"The Grammar which has attained the greatest celebrity for general use, is that by Mr. Murray. In this work, he has embodied the principles and rules which were deduced by the most celebrated grammarians that preceded him; and by arranging the whole in a better order, has rendered it decidedly superior to every work of the kind which existed before its appearance." - *Hiley's Preface.*

Since that time, many works have been published of various degrees of merit, most of which have had for their object, not so much to investigate more thoroughly the principles of language, as to simplify and elucidate principles already investigated. The *Etymology and Syntax* of Dr. Crombie, lately published, though not intended for the use of schools, is a most valuable addition to the stock of original works on this subject. "The industry of research, and acuteness of discrimination, which he has evinced in the collection and comparison of different forms of speech, have thrown great light upon many difficulties; and his conclusions must, in general, serve as landmarks to the future traveller." Among recent valuable contributions to our stock of literature on this subject, may be noticed the work of Mr. Harrison, on "The rise, progress, and present structure of the English language," published in England in 1848, and republished here in 1850; and the large work of William C. Fowler, late Professor of Rhetoric in Amherst College, entitled "The English language in its Elements and Forms." Some works of an eccentric character have also at times appeared, whose authors, smitten with a passion for novelty or singularity, have manifested much more capacity for pulling down, than for building up—for finding fault with that which is good already, than for producing something better in its place. Still the labors of even these are not without their use. Like the violence of the tempest which shakes the sturdy oak, and causes it to strike its roots deeper and firmer in the parent soil, they only more firmly establish that which can not be overthrown.

The principles of language, which grammar as a science investigates, are general and permanent. They belong to all languages, and remain the same, however they may be classed, or in whatever terms they may be expressed. Hence it is that the grammars of all languages are substantially the same, and differ only in minor details, as idiom and usage require. This is as it should be. No good reason can be given for making a grammar of the English language, for example, *toto cælo*, different from the grammars of other languages, ancient or modern. And yet it has been, and still is, the practice of some to declaim against the existing systems of English Grammar, because, as they say, they are conformed to the grammars of the dead languages, or to those of foreign nations. Though such efforts may prevail for a season and with a few, more mature reflection usually dissipates the delusion. It is well known that novices in every science are constantly making discoveries; and these appear to them for a time

so important and wonderful, that they sometimes think they cannot fail to astonish the world, revolutionize the science, and immortalize themselves. It happens, too, that such discoveries are usually in proportion to the want of discrimination and intelligence of those who make them. A more extended acquaintance with facts and principles will often prove, even to themselves, that their great discoveries are only the crude and exploded fancies of other men, and other days, long since abandoned as untenable and worthless. Discoveries of such a character are sometimes made in grammar also; and such, too, are often their origin and their end.

The system of English grammar, as we now have it in the best works, or in what some are pleased to call the "Old Grammars," rests on a more solid foundation. Men of sound, discriminating, and philosophical minds—men prepared for the work by long study, patient investigation, and extensive acquirements, have labored for ages to improve and perfect it; and nothing is hazardous in asserting, that should it be unwisely abandoned, it will be long before another, equal in beauty, stability, and usefulness, be produced in its stead.

II. CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

LANGUAGE, written or spoken, consists of words. In combining these into propositions and sentences, so as to express our ideas in a correct and intelligent manner, an accurate knowledge of their forms, changes, and functions, is necessary, and this again can be attained only by a proper classification of them according to their distinguishing characteristics and uses in the communication of thought. The importance of this has always been felt by grammarians, and various classifications have been made, differing from each other according to the principles assumed as their basis. The essentials of speech were anciently supposed to be sufficiently designated by the *Noun* and the *Verb*; to which was subsequently added, the *Conjunction*. In modern times, the parts of speech have been denominated *Substantives*, *Attributives*, *Definitives*, and *Connectives*. Such a classification, however, is too general to be of much use in grammar. To group together under one head, words specifically different in their character and use, can tend only to confusion; and to multiply divisions which can serve no practical purpose, is an extreme equally unprofitable.

By a careful analysis of language, we find that some words are employed to express the *names* of things, others to indicate their *qualities*; some express *action* or *state* under various modifications; others are used in connection with these to point out *circumstances* of time, place, manner, order, degree, etc.; some are employed to denote certain *relations* of things to each other, and others again chiefly to *connect* the different parts of a sentence together. This diversity in the use of words is as real, and as distinctly marked as the functions of the bones, muscles, arteries,

and nerves of the human system, and forms a basis of classification equally proper in all languages.

On this principle of classification, the later Greek grammarians divided words into eight classes or parts of speech; viz., the *Noun*, *Article*, *Pronoun*, *Verb*, *Participle*, *Adverb*, *Preposition*, and *Conjunction*. The Romans had no article, but retained the same number by distinguishing between adverbs and interjections. Both included under the term *noun*, the names of things, and words expressive of their qualities; the former they called *Substantive Nouns*; the latter, *Adjective Nouns*. These were subsequently ranked as two distinct classes, commonly called *Nouns* or *Substantives*, and *Adjectives*; and the participle was restored to the verb, to which it properly belongs. This classification, with little variation, has been adopted by the best English grammarians, and remains in general use even at this day; and though not absolutely perfect, or incapable of improvement, still it is sufficient for all practical purposes, and is perhaps, on the whole, the best that has yet been proposed. Objections to it merely on the ground that it agrees with the generally received classification of ancient, or foreign languages, are just about as reasonable as objections to the anatomical classifications of ancient or foreign nations would be, merely because they happen to differ in stature, complexion, or features, from ourselves. Such objections have been, and still continue to be made, the futility of which needs no better illustration than the fact, that, after all, their authors have offered little else in its stead, than the same, or nearly the same divisions under different names.

III. THE NOUN OR SUBSTANTIVE.

The characteristic of this class of words, is that they are *names*. Every word that is the name of any thing that exists, whether material or immaterial, or of any thing that is or can be made the subject of thought or discourse, is a noun. Hence it follows, that letters, marks, or characters, and words used independently of their meaning, and merely as things spoken of, are nouns; thus, *A* is a vowel; *honor* is sometimes spelled with a *u*, and sometimes without it; *th* has two sounds; *us* is a pronoun; I will have no *ifs* or *buts*; *+* is the sign of addition. Hence, also, the infinitive mood, a participle, a member of a sentence, or a proposition, forming together the subject of a discourse, or the object of a verb or preposition, and being the name of an act or circumstance, are in construction regarded as nouns, and are usually called "substantive phrases," as, "*To play* is pleasant," "*His being an expert dancer* is no recommendation," "Let your motto be '*Honesty is the best policy*.'"

The ACCIDENTS of the noun, in English, are, in general, the same as in other languages, i. e. they have *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*; though in the details of these, there is some diversity in different languages, and even in different grammars of the same language.

IV. PERSON OF NOUNS.

The person of nouns is not determined by any difference of form, as in pronouns, but simply by their relation to the discourse. In direct discourse,* a noun used by a speaker or writer to designate himself, is said to be of the *first* person; used to designate the person addressed, it is said to be of the *second* person; and, when used to designate a person or thing spoken of, it is said to be of the *third* person. It is obvious then from the nature of the case, that those words only can be of the first or second person, which denote intelligent beings, or which by personification are regarded as such, for no other can either speak or properly be spoken to, and they are usually in apposition with the first or second personal pronouns; as, "I, Artaxerxes make a decree;" "I, thy father-in-law Jethro, am come unto thee;" "Thou, God seest me."

A noun in the predicate, however, denoting either the speaker, or the person spoken to, is generally regarded as in the third person; thus, "I am he that liveth and was dead;" "I am. Alpha and Omega—who is, and who was, and who is to come." For this construction, and the variation of meaning which a change of person commonly indicates, see § 59, R. II, *Rem.* This rule, however, does not hold universally. In the following sentence, "Verily thou art a God that hidest thyself," the word "God," in the predicate, is evidently regarded as of the second person. So also in the phrases, "It is I," "It is thou," etc. In oblique discourse, the third person only can be used.

As the name of the speaker, or of the person spoken to, is seldom expressed (the pronouns *I* and *thou*, *we* and *you*, being used in their stead), it seems to be a useless waste of time, in parsing, to mention the person of a noun, unless it be in the *first* or *second* person, which will not happen more than once in a thousand times. Much time therefore will be saved, and no loss sustained, if it be considered as *taken for granted*, without stating it, that a noun is in the third person, unless it be otherwise mentioned.

V. GENDER OF NOUNS.

In all languages, the distinction of nouns with regard to sex, has been noted. Every substantive denotes either a male or female, or that which is neither the one nor the other. This accident, or characteristic of nouns, is called their *Gender*. In English, all words denoting male animals, are considered as *masculine*; all those denoting female animals, *feminine*; and those denoting things neither male nor female, are termed *neuter*. "In

*Discourse is said to be *direct*, when a writer or speaker delivers his own sentiments; as, "I am the man." *Oblique*, when he relates, in his own language, the sayings of another; as, "He says that he is the man." See Lat. Gr. § 141, Rule VI.

this distribution," says Crombie, "we follow the order of nature, and our language is, in this respect, both simple and animated." Both in Latin and Greek, many words denoting things without sex, are ranked as masculine or feminine, without any regard to their meaning, but simply on account of their terminations. In French, all nouns are regarded as either masculine or feminine, which is a still greater departure from the order and simplicity of nature, for which the English language on this point is distinguished.

Some have objected to the designation of three genders; they think that as there are but two sexes, it would be more philosophical and accurate to say there are only two genders; and to regard all words not belonging to these, as without gender. A little reflection, I think, will show that this objection has no just foundation, either in philosophy or in fact, and that the change it proposes would be no improvement. It has probably arisen from confounding the word *gender*, which properly signifies a *kind*, *class*, or *species* (Lat. *genus*, French *genre*), with the word *sex*, and considering them as synonymous. This, however, is not the case; these words do not mean precisely the same thing, and they can not be properly applied in the same way. We never say, "the masculine sex, the feminine sex;" nor "the male gender, the female gender." In strict propriety of speech, the word *sex* can be predicated only of animated beings; the word *gender*, only of the term by which that being is expressed. The *being* man, has sex, not gender; the *word* man, has gender, not sex. Though therefore it is very absurd to speak of three sexes, yet it may be very proper to speak of three genders; that is to say, there are three classes (genders) of nouns, distinguished from each other by their relation to sex. One denotes objects of the male sex, and is called *masculine*; another denotes objects of the female sex, and is called *feminine*; and the third denotes objects neither male nor female, for which a name more appropriate than the term *neuter* need not be desired.

The term "*Common gender*," applied to such words as *parent*, *child*, *friend*, etc., does not constitute a distinct class of words, which are neither masculine, nor feminine, nor neuter, but is used for convenience, merely to indicate that such words sometimes denote a male, and sometimes a female. Instead of "*common*," those who prefer it, may call such words "*masculine or feminine*."

VI. CASE OF NOUNS.

In the ancient languages, and also in the modern languages of Europe, nouns in each number have certain changes of termination, called Cases, which serve to shew the relation existing between them and other words in the sentence. Of these, the Latin has six; the Greek, five; the German, four; the Saxon, six; the French, three; etc. In English, the only variation of the noun in each number, is that used to mark possession, and, for this reason

commonly called the possessive case. The nominative and objective do not differ in form, but only in their use; the former being used to denote the subject of a verb, and the latter to denote the object of a verb or preposition. The propriety of this distinction is manifest, from the fact, that in personal and relative pronouns, the objective case is distinguished from the nominative by a change of form.

VII. THE ARTICLE.

THE ARTICLE may properly be regarded as an adjective word, i. e. it is always employed in connection with a noun, or with words and phrases used as such. In Greek, and also in other languages, it is declined like the adjective, and comes under the same rules of concord with it. The Articles in English are *A* or *an*, and *The*. Of these, the first is used to individualize without restricting. It is therefore appropriately termed *Indefinite*, and is never used but with the singular number.

This word is evidently a derivative of the Saxon numeral *One* (one), shortened by the absence of emphasis into *An*; or it may be regarded as the same word used in a particular way. For the sake of euphony, the *n* is dropped before a consonant; and because most words begin with a consonant, this of course is its more common form. In the French, German, and other languages, which have the indefinite article, its form is the same with their numeral *one*, and, in reading or speaking, it is distinguished from it by emphasis only. Still, in these languages it is not regarded as a numeral, its office being specifically different. The office of the numeral is to designate *number only*—one as opposed to two or more. But though from its nature this article is joined only with the singular, yet *number* is not the idea it is used to convey, but simply to indicate an individual indefinitely. An example will illustrate this. If I say, "Will *one* man be able to carry this burden so far?" I evidently oppose one to more, and the answer might be, "No; but *two* men will." But if I say, "Will *a* man be able to carry this burden?" it is manifest the idea is entirely changed; the reference is not to number, but to the species; and the answer might be, "No; but a horse will." Translate these two sentences into Latin or Greek, or any language which does not use the indefinite article, and the first will necessarily have the numeral, the second will as necessarily want it. In this respect, the English has manifestly a decided advantage over those languages in which the same term is used both as an article and a numeral; and hence it appears to me, that to class this article as a numeral, as some have proposed, would not only be in some measure to relinquish this advantage, but, by combining under one head, words whose use is so widely different, would prove an injury instead of an improvement.

The Article *The*, on the other hand, is used to shew that a word is restricted, or limited; and is therefore termed *Definite*. Its pro-

per office is to call the attention to a particular individual or class or to any number of such, and is used with nouns in either the singular or plural number. This word seems to be derived from the Saxon *Se* (that), plural *Tha*; and is distinguished from the demonstratives *this*, and *that*, much in the same way that *a* is distinguished from the numeral *one*. The Greeks had a separate word for this purpose, which the early grammarians called the *prepositive* Article, from its position *before* its noun; and to distinguish it from the relative pronoun which they called the *postpositive* Article, usually placed after it. These two words, in many sentences, were used relatively to each other, and, like a joint (*Articulus*), from which the name is derived, served to unite the two members of the sentence to which they respectively belonged, into one whole. This designation, originally given to this word from one of its prevailing uses, continued to be applied to it not only after the postpositive article was more appropriately called the Relative pronoun, but also in cases in which no conjunction of the parts of a sentence was effected; and modern grammarians have extended it to the word known as the *Indefinite* Article. Whether a more appropriate designation for these words should now be devised, or whether they might be classed under some other head, are questions of no practical moment. The words exist in the language; they have a specific office to perform; they have peculiarities of construction which belong to no other class of words; they are only two in number, and are easily distinguished from other parts of speech, and if these considerations should not be considered sufficient to entitle them strictly and philosophically to a separate denomination, they are such, at any rate, as to render it convenient and useful; and if so, it seems unwise, for the sake of a trivial advantage, even if that could be gained, to disturb the settled language of grammar on this point, and so to destroy its present similarity to that of most other languages, in which this division and nomenclature are received.

In many sentences, *The* and *That* are nearly equivalent, and the sense will be the same by using either; as, "*The* man, or *that* man who hath no music in his soul," etc. This, however, does not always hold; "*The* difference," says Crombie, "seems to be,

1st. The Article *the*, like *a*, must have a substantive joined with it; whereas *that*, like *one*, may have it understood; thus, speaking of books, I may select one and say, 'give me *that*;' but not, 'give me *the*;' 'give me *one*;' but not 'give me *a*.' Here the analogy holds between *a* and *one*—*the* and *that*.

2d. "In general, the distinction between *the* and *that* seems to be that the latter marks the object more emphatically than the former, being indirectly opposed to *this*. I can not, for example, say, 'that man with that long beard,' without implying a contrast with this man with this long beard; the word *that* being always emphatical and discriminative."

VIII. THE ADJECTIVE.

Words of this class are supposed to have been originally nouns, the names of qualities or attributes, and, from being joined to nouns whose quality or property they were employed to express, were called *adjective nouns*. In a more advanced state of language, with few exceptions, they cease to be used as nouns, and are employed to denote a quality, property, or attribute, not separately, but in conjunction with its subject; thus, when we say, "a stone," we have the generic name of a certain substance, and no more; but when we say, "a round stone," "a hard stone," "a smooth stone," we have the generic name, limited and described by the attributes of roundness, hardness, smoothness; and these as inherent in or belonging to the substance stone. The adjective always *implies* the name of a quality or attribute, but does not present that idea alone to the mind, as when we speak of *roundness*, *hardness*, etc., but that idea *in concreto*—in conjunction with its subject. Hence it follows that a word which *does not add* to its noun the idea of some quality or attribute as belonging to it or connected with it, is not, strictly speaking, an adjective; and for this reason the articles, and the words generally ranked as distributive, demonstrative, and indefinite pronouns, though adjectives in construction, are not so in sense and meaning. They express no quality, property, or attribute of a noun, either separately or in connection with it, nor can they be predicated of it. On the other hand, all words which do make such an addition to the noun, may properly be regarded as adjectives, though they be often or generally used for other purposes. Thus the words "gold," "sea," "flower," are nouns; but when we say "a gold watch," "sea water," "a flower garden," they are used as adjectives.

IX. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives denoting qualities or properties capable of increase, and so of existing in different degrees, assume different forms, to express a greater or less degree of such quality or property in one object compared with another, or with several others. These forms are three, and are appropriately denominated the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*. Some object to the positive being called a degree of comparison, because, in its ordinary use, it does not, like the comparative and superlative forms, necessarily involve comparison; and they think it more philosophical to say, that the degrees of comparison are only two, the comparative and superlative. This, however, with the appearance of greater exactness, is little else than a change of words, and a change perhaps not for the better. If we define a degree of comparison 'a form of the adjective which necessarily implies comparison,' this change would be an improvement; but this is not what grammarians mean, when they say there are three degrees of comparison. Their meaning is, that there are three forms of the adjective, each of

which, when comparison is intended, expresses a different degree of the quality or attribute in the things compared : thus, if we compare wood, stone, and iron, with regard to their weight, we would say, "wood is *heavy*, stone is *heavier*, and iron is the *heaviest*." Each of these forms of the adjective in this comparison expresses a different degree of weight in the things compared : the positive *heavy* expresses one degree; the comparative *heavier*, another; and the superlative *heaviest*, a third; and of these, the first is as essential an element in the comparison as the second or the third. Indeed there never can be comparison without the statement of at least two degrees; and of these, the positive form of the adjective, either expressed or implied, always expresses one. When we say "wisdom is more precious than rubies," two degrees of value are compared, the one expressed by the comparative "more precious," the other necessarily implied : the meaning is, "rubies are *precious*, wisdom is *more precious*." Though, therefore, it is true that the simple form of the adjective does not always, nor even commonly denote comparison; yet as it always does indicate one of the degrees compared whenever comparison exists, it seems proper to rank it with the other forms, as a degree of comparison. This involves no impropriety, it produces no confusion, it leads to no error, it has a positive foundation in the nature of comparison, and it furnishes an appropriate and convenient appellation for this form of the adjective, by which to distinguish it in speech from the other forms.

X. PRONOUNS.

The term *pronoun* (Lat. *pronomen*) strictly means a word used for, or instead of a noun. In English, pronouns are usually divided into four general classes, *personal*, *relative*, *interrogative*, and *adjective*. The first or personal, includes also compound pronouns, which in the nominative are emphatic or *definite*, and in the objective, reflexive, § 15, Obs. 2. The second, or *relative* (except "*that*"), without any change of form, becomes *interrogative* in asking questions, § 17. All the words in these three classes, both in sense and construction, are used as nouns, and instead of nouns.

XI. THE PRONOUN *YOU*.

You, the common plural of *thou*, is now used also to denote one person; but, even when it does so, it always takes a plural verb. This usage has become so fixed and uniform, that some eminent grammarians contend for its being regarded as singular. No advantage, however, would be gained by adopting this proposal; and it seems to accord much more with simplicity, as well as with fact, to regard it as a plural which has come by use to be applied in this manner. In certain kinds of writing (243), *we* is used in the same way; and so also is the corresponding pronoun in French, and

some other modern languages, in which, however, it is always regarded as a plural form.*

XII. AS, NOT A RELATIVE.

The word *AS*, is by some grammarians considered as a relative. That it should not be considered a relative in any circumstances, I think is plain from the following considerations:

1. It has neither the meaning, nor the use of a relative. Its office is simply to connect things compared, and, together with its antecedent word, to express the idea of *equality, likeness, &c.* between them; thus, "James is as tall as his father." "Your hat is such as mine."

2. It does not, like a relative, relate to a noun or pronoun before it, called the antecedent, nor stand instead of it, or of any other word, but is related only to the comparative word, *as, such, so*, etc., in the preceding clause. Thus, in the sentence, "As many as received him," the second *as* relates to the first, and the two convey the idea of equality. Again, "Send such books as you have." Here, *as* refers not to *books*, but to *such*. Take away *such*, and *as* can not be used.

3. *As* can never be used as a substitute for another relative pronoun, nor another relative pronoun as a substitute for it. If, then, it is a relative pronoun, it is, to say the least, a very unaccommodating one.

4. In sentences in which *as* is said to be a relative, it evidently has the same meaning and use as in those in which it is allowed to be only a conjunction. Compare the following examples: "As many as five men received a reward." "As many as received him." "As many as they can give." In all these, the phrase "as many as" means, and is felt to mean, the same thing; equality of number. There surely, then, can be no propriety in calling the second *as* a conjunction in the first sentence, and a relative in the other two. The same thing will be evident if we change the antecedent word; thus, "Such books as these are useful." "Such books as are useful." "Such books as you can give."

5. If the word *as* in the preceding sentences and clauses is a relative pronoun, for the same reasons alleged for this, the word *than* must be a relative in those which follow. The construction is precisely the same: "More than five books were wanted." "More books than are useful." "More books than you can give." Now, if, in the second of these examples, *than* is not a relative in

*"The pronoun *you*, though originally and properly plural, is now generally applied alike to one person or to more. This usage, however it may seem to involve a solecism, is established by that authority against which the mere grammarian has scarcely a right to remonstrate. We do not, however, think it necessary or advisable to encumber the conjugations, as some have done, by introducing this pronoun and the corresponding form of the verb, as singular. It is manifestly better to say that the plural is used for the singular, by the figure *enallage*."—*Good Brown*, p. 137.

the nominative case before *are*, nor in the third a relative in the objective case after *can give*, what need for considering *as* a relative in the same position, in the same construction, and for the same purpose, to denote comparison? There is the same ellipsis in both, and the same words necessary to be supplied, in the one case, as in the other; thus, "More books than [those which] were wanted." "More books than [those which] are useful," etc. So, "Such books as [those which] were wanted." "As many books as [those which] are necessary," etc.

XIII. THE RELATIVE *WHAT*.

"Various opinions have been entertained about the nature of the relative *what*. It is said to be 'a compound relative pronoun, including both the antecedent and the relative, and equivalent to *that which*, or, *the thing which*.' Though this may seem plausible, yet we shall find, on examination, that *what* is nothing more than a relative, and includes nothing else. Compare these two sentences:

" 'I saw *whom* I wanted to see.'—

" 'I saw *what* I wanted to see.'

"If *what*, in the latter, is equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*; *whom*, in the former, is equivalent to *him whom*, or the *person whom*. 'Who steals my purse steals trash' is equivalent to *he who*, or *the man who*.

"And on the same principle, when the relative is omitted, the antecedent should be represented as equivalent to the relative and the antecedent. Thus, 'I saw the man I wanted to see.' Here, *man* should be represented as equivalent to *the man whom*.

"The cause of the error in respect to *what*, is, that the antecedent is never expressed with it. It is not like the word *who*, which is used both when the antecedent is expressed, and when it is omitted. The relative *that*, however, was formerly used in many cases where we use *what*, that is, with the antecedent omitted. A few examples of this will help us to ascertain the nature of *what*: 'We speak *that* we do know.'—*English Bible*.—'I am *that* I am.'—*Ib*.

" 'Who had been seen imagine mote thereby,

That whylome of Hercules hath been told.'—*Spenser*.

" 'Eschewe *that* wicked is.'—*Gower*.

" 'Is it possible he should not know *what* he is, and be *that* he is.'—*Shaks*.

" 'Gather the sequel by *that* went before.'—*Ib*.

"In these examples, *that* is a relative, and is exactly synonymous with *what*. No one would contend, that *that* stands for itself and its antecedent at the same time. The antecedent is omitted because it is indefinite, or easily supplied."—*Butler's Grammar*, p. 48.

These remarks appear to me just and conclusive on this point.

XIV. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The fourth class, called adjective pronouns, and sometimes pronominal adjectives, is usually subdivided into *possessive*, *distributive*, *demonstrative*, and *indefinite*. Of these, the first or possessive are derived from the personal, and in meaning are strictly pronouns, being always the representative or substitute of a noun; but in construction they are adjectives, and are always joined with a noun, and hence are appropriately denominated adjective pronouns, i. e. pronouns used adjectively. By some, they are less appropriately classed with adjectives, and called pronominal adjectives.

In many grammars the possessives *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are set down as the possessive case of the personal pronouns, with *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, making two forms of the possessive case; thus, *my* or *mine*, *thy* or *thine*, etc. In the use of these forms this difference is to be observed, viz. that the first is always followed by a noun denoting the thing possessed; as, "this is *my* book:" the latter never has the noun following it, but seems as it were to include it, as well as to be governed by it; as, "this book is not *mine*," equivalent to "this book is not *my* book." The possessive case of the noun is used both ways; as, "this is *John's* book," or, "this book is *John's*." Which of these methods is adopted in teaching or studying grammar, is a matter of no practical moment: some grammarians adopt the one, and some the other, merely as a matter of taste, without any controversy on the subject. The classification in the text is preferred as being on the whole more simple, because the possessives *my*, *thy*, etc., like the adjective, can never stand alone, as the possessive case does, but must be supported by a noun following them; thus, we say, "It is the king's;" "It is yours;" but we can not say, "It is your," the presence of a noun being necessary to the last expression; and because if these words are ranked as the possessive case of the personal pronoun, it unnecessarily leaves the English language without a class of words corresponding to the possessive pronouns of other languages. They have precisely the same meaning as the Latin *Meus*, *mea*, *meum*; or the French *Mon*, *ma*; or the German *Mein* (or *meiner*), *meine*, *mein*; or the Anglo-Saxon (which is the mother of the English language), *Min*, *mine*, *min*; they are used in precisely the same way. There seems, therefore, to be no good reason for giving them a different classification. Indeed, the only circumstance which renders it possible to regard them as a possessive case in English, is that like the English adjective they are indeclinable. Had they been declinable, like the Latin or French, etc., they never could have been used as a possessive case.

Some, again, regard *my*, *thy*, etc. as the only forms of the possessive case; and *mine*, *thine*, etc. not as a possessive case at all, but as a substitute for the possessive case of the pronoun, and the noun referred to, together; and that it is in the nominative or objective case

according to the noun referred to would be, in the full expression; thus, "Your book is old, *mine* is new," is equivalent to "Your book is old, *my book* is new." Hence it is inferred that *mine* is not a *possessive* case, but a substitute for *my book*, and the nominative to *is*. This, though plausible, is obviously incorrect. If, instead of the pronoun *mine*, we substitute a noun, that noun will have to be in the possessive case; thus, "Your book is old, *John's* is new." The construction in these two sentences being identical, if "*John's*" is the possessive case, so also is "*mine*;" and if in the possessive, it can not be the nominative to "*is*." The mistake lies in considering *mine* a substitute for *my book*, whereas it really is a substitute only for *my*, including such a reference to the word *book* in the preceding part of the sentence, as renders its repetition in the second part not only unnecessary, but, according to the usage of the language, improper. The difference between the construction of the noun and the pronoun, in such sentences, is simply this: the possessive *mine*, *thine*, etc., according to usage, are never used before a noun, but the possessive of the noun is used both before a noun and after it. When it is deemed proper to express the noun after the pronoun, the form *mine*, etc. must be changed for *my*, etc. Thus, we can not say, "*Mine* book," but "*My* book;" but we can with equal propriety say, "*John's* book," or, "The book is *John's*."

In the same manner may be explained the use of the possessive after transitive verbs in the active voice, and after prepositions; thus, "James lost his books, and I gave him *mine*," meaning *my books*; "A picture of the king's," is a picture of (i. e. from) the king's pictures. So, "A book of mine," is a book of [from] my books. "A friend of yours," is a friend of [from] your friends. It is worthy of notice, that though this use of the possessive after *of*, originally and strictly implies selection, or a *part* only, it has insensibly come to be used when no such selection is, or even can be, intended. Thus we may say, "That house of yours," "that farm of yours," without intending to imply that any other houses or farms belong to you; and when we say, "That head of yours," selection is obviously excluded by the sense.

The words belonging to the other three divisions, have been found more difficult to arrange in a satisfactory manner. They seem to occupy a sort of middle ground between adjectives and pronouns, and are sometimes used as the one, and sometimes as the other, without the strict and appropriate character of either. They are not adjectives in sense as, already shewn (App. VIII); but they are generally adjectives in construction, having a noun expressed or understood, which they serve to limit or restrict in various ways. On the other hand, with few exceptions, they are so often used without a noun, or as its substitute, that they are not improperly regarded as pronouns, though in a sense less strict than the others; thus, "Let *each* esteem *others* better than themselves." "Among men, *some* are good, *others* bad, *none* perfect." "*All* things come alike to *all*," etc.

From this equivocal or rather double character of these words

they have been variously arranged by different authors. Some, among whom are Grant, Crombie, Hiley, Sutcliffe, Allen, Cooper, Brown, etc. class them with adjectives, and call them "*Pronominal Adjectives*;" and others, such as Lowth, Priestly, Smart, Murray, Lennie, Booth, Churchill, Wright, Cobbet, Kirkham, Smith, and many others, class them with pronouns, and call them "*Adjective Pronouns*." Since all are agreed about the use of these words, it seems in itself a matter of less importance to which of these two classes they be attached, or whether they are more appropriately called *Pronominal Adjectives*, or *Adjective Pronouns*. But as in the Latin and Greek, and in most, if not all European languages, almost all of the corresponding words are ranked uniformly as adjective pronouns; and as there is no necessity for, and no advantage to be derived from a different classification, it seems to be unwise, merely for the sake of change or the love of singularity, to depart from this arrangement in English.

XV. THE VERB.

Though there is little, if any, difference of judgment among grammarians as to what a verb is, yet all have probably found it a difficult matter to give an accurate, and at the same time a brief definition of it; and, accordingly, nearly all grammars differ in their definition of this part of speech. The old definition, that "a verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer," though unexceptionable as any, as far as it goes, is yet greatly defective in stating nothing respecting the *function* or *use* of this part of speech.

The use of the verb in simple propositions is to *affirm* or *declare*, and that of which it affirms is called its subject or nominative. This is always the office of the verb in the *indicative*, *potential*, or *subjunctive*. In the use of its other parts, however, namely, the *imperative*, *infinitive*, and *participles*, there is properly no affirmation, though the action or state expressed by the verb in these parts is clearly seen to be the act or state of *some person or thing*, and which for that reason is strictly and properly, though not technically, its *subject*. Thus, "For me to die is gain," is a simple proposition, containing two verbs, the first of which, *to die*, in the infinitive, expresses no affirmation, though it evidently, without affirming, attributes *dying* to a person, expressed by the word *me*. So when we say, "I see a man *walking*," the word *walking* expresses an act of the person *man*, though there is properly no affirmation. In like manner, when I say, "Do this," the verb *do* attributes action imperatively to the person addressed, but there is no affirmation. To speak of "affirming imperatively" is certainly not very intelligible, though, for want of a better expression, we sometimes use it in a loose sense.

For these reasons, the definition of a verb which says it is "a part of speech which *asserts* or *affirms*," appears to me to be de-

fective. It states one function of this class of words, but excludes, or at least *does not include*, others. It gives, as the distinguishing characteristic of a verb, that which does not belong to it in several of its parts and uses. *It is too restrictive.*

The definition formerly given in this work, is liable to an objection of an opposite kind: *it is too general*, and not sufficiently distinctive. A verb does, indeed, "express an *action* or *state*," but there are other words that do so also. Nouns, such as *love, desire, wish, hope*, etc., and most verbal nouns, such as *eruption, friction, collision, diffusion, progression*, etc., express *action*; and in many words, both nouns and adjectives, express a *state*.

The definition given in the text, though perhaps not unexceptionable, occupies a middle place between these extremes, avoids the indefiniteness of the old definition, and is probably less liable to objection than most of those which have been given.

XVI. DIVISION OF VERBS.

The division of verbs into *Transitive* and *Intransitive* is now so generally adopted by grammarians, instead of the former division into *Active*, *Passive*, and *Neuter*; and its propriety and simplicity so obvious, that it seems now unnecessary to argue the point. Of this division, it is necessary only to observe—

1st. It divides all verbs into two classes, *Transitive* and *Intransitive*, distinguished by a clear and definite characteristic, derived from their use in the construction of sentences. To the first, belong those which are used *transitively*, whatever be their meaning or form; and to the second, all that are used *intransitively*, whether they denote action or not (§ 19).

2d. This arrangement and nomenclature leaves the terms *Active* and *Passive* at liberty to be applied exclusively to the two forms which all transitive verbs assume, called the *active* and the *passive voice*.

3d. It dispenses with the term *neuter* altogether, as applied to verbs, and leaves it to be appropriated in grammar to the designation of gender only.

XVII. MOODS.

Some grammarians are of opinion that no more moods or tenses ought to be assigned to the verb in English, than are distinguished by difference of form in the simple verb. This principle rejects at once the whole *passive voice*; and in the *active*, retains only the present and past tense of the *indicative mood*, and the present of the *subjunctive*. To carry out this principle to its full extent, we should reject also the plural number of the tenses that are left, for this is always in the same form with the first person singular. This certainly reduces the English verb to very narrow limits, and renders it a very simple thing; so simple, indeed, as to be of little use, being capable of expressing an action or state only in two relations of time.

This simplification of the verb, however, tends only to perplex the language, for though it reduces the number of moods and tenses, it does not, and can not, reduce the number of the forms of speech, by which the different times or modes of action are expressed. It is certain, for example, that we have such forms of speech as, "have loved," "shall love," "might love," etc. Now since these and other similar forms of speech express only different relations of time and manner of the one act, "to love," it certainly does seem more easy and simple to regard them as different moods and tenses of the verb *to love*, than to elevate the auxiliary to the rank of a principal verb, and then to combine them syntactically with the verb *to love*. Indeed, to dispose of them in this way satisfactorily, is not a quite easy or simple matter. For example, in the sentence, "I have written a letter," it is easy enough to say that *have* is a verb transitive, etc., and *written* a perfect participle; but when we inquire, what does *have* govern? what does *written* agree with? a correct and satisfactory answer will not be so easily found. This example will perhaps show that it is much easier, and quite as satisfactory, to rank the expression as a certain mood and tense of the verb "to write."

This theory has its foundation in the supposition that a tense or mood must necessarily mean a distinct form of the simple verb. This supposition, however, is entirely gratuitous. There is nothing in the meaning of the word *mood* or *tense*, which countenances it. A verb is a word which expresses action; *tense*, expresses the action connected with certain relations of time; *mood*, represents it as further modified by circumstances of contingency, conditionality, etc.; but whether these modifications are expressed by a change in the form of the simple verb, or by its combination with certain auxiliaries, seems to be a matter perfectly indifferent. Indeed, the generally received opinion is, that the different forms of the verb, denominated *mood* and *tense*, in Latin and Greek, are nothing more than the incorporation of the auxiliary with the root of the simple verb. If so, why should not the uniform juxtaposition of the auxiliary with the verb, to answer the same purpose, be called by the same name? If a certain auxiliary, connected with a verb, express a certain relation of time, properly denominated the future tense; what essential difference can it make, whether the two words combine into one, or merely stand together? On the whole, then, there is nothing gained by the proposed simplification: Indeed, on the contrary, much, even of simplicity, is lost; and it moreover deprives our language of the analogy which it has in mood and tense with other languages, modern as well as ancient; and if adopted, instead of smoothing the path of the learner, it would tend only to perplex and obscure it.

INDICATIVE AND POTENTIAL.

The indicative mood attributes to its subject the *act, being, or*

state expressed by the verb simply and without limitation. The potential mood attributes to the subject not the act, etc., expressed by the verb, but only *liberty*, *power*, *will*, or *obligation* with respect to it; that is, the potential mood expresses not what the subject does or is, but only what it *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* do or be, etc.

The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, etc., in the potential mood, in all probability, were at first independent verbs in the indicative, followed by the verb in the infinitive, without the sign *to* before it as it is now used after such verbs as *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, etc. Grammarians now generally combine them as one word, constituting a particular form of the verb, to which they have given the name of *potential mood*, from its leading use. The indicative and potential both *declare*, but they declare different things: the former declares what the subject *does*, or *is*; the latter, what it *may* or *can*, etc., *do* or *be*. The declaration made by the indicative is simple; that made by the potential is always complex, containing the idea of *liberty*, *power*, etc., in connection with the act. "He *writes*," is the indicative of the verb *to write*. "He *can write*," is the indicative of the verb *can*, with the infinitive of *to write*; or, combined, the potential of the verb *to write*.

XVIII. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

This mood, as its name implies, is always *subjoined* to, and dependent on, another verb expressed or understood. "If he *study*, he *will improve*;" "O [I *wish*] that thou *wert*," etc.

The subjunctive mood differs in form from the indicative in the *present tense* only; in the verb *to be*, in the present and past.

Both the indicative and potential, with a conjunctive particle prefixed, are used subjunctively; that is, they are used to express what is conditional, or contingent, and with dependence on another verb; as, "If he *sleeps*, he *will* do well;" "He *would* go if he *could*" (go).

The conditionality or contingency, etc. expressed by this mood, is usually intimated by such conjunctives as, *if*, *though*, *lest*, *unless*, *so*, etc. prefixed, which, however, make no part of the verb.

The same thing is sometimes expressed without the conjunction, by merely putting the verb or auxiliary before the subject or nominative; as, "Had I," for "If I had;" "Were he," for "If he were;" "Had he gone," for "If he had gone;" "Would he but reform," for "If he would but reform," etc.

Most grammarians consider the subjunctive present only as an abbreviated form of the future indicative, or the past potential, and that the supplement may always be made; thus, "If he *study*," etc. that is, if he *shall* (or *should*) *study*," etc.; "though he [*should*] come," etc. This view is plausible, and may apply to the present tense of the subjunctive in most cases, but it will not apply to the past subjunctive of the verb *to be*, either as a principal or an auxiliary. For though we might say, "If I

should be," for "If I be," yet we can not say, 'If I should were?' And there are some cases in which the present subjunctive form seems to be indispensable; as, "See thou *do* it not;" "If he *do* but try, he will succeed;" still—

The subjunctive mood, in its distinctive form, is now falling greatly into disuse. The tendency appears to be to lay it aside, and to use the indicative or potential in its stead, wherever it can be done. According to rule, the subjunctive form is used only when it has a future reference; as, "If he *come* [viz. at a future time], he will be welcome." The same idea is expressed by saying, "If he *comes*" (186, I. 5), "If he *shall come*;" and one or other of these expressions is now generally preferred to the subjunctive. Formerly, in cases of supposition, the present subjunctive was used, whether it had a future reference or not; as, "Though God *be* high, yet hath he respect to the lowly." In all such expressions, according to present usage, the present indicative would be used; thus, "Though God *is* high," etc.

XIX. THE PARTICIPLE IN *ing* IN A PASSIVE SENSE.

According to the definition, the passive voice expresses, passively, the same thing that the active does actively. For example, "Cæsar conquered Gaul," and "Gaul was conquered by Cæsar," express precisely the same idea. This, however, is not always done by the regular passive form in the *present tense*, though it is generally done in the other tenses. Thus, it will be felt at once that the expressions, "Cæsar conquers Gaul," and "Gaul is conquered by Cæsar," do not express the same thing.

In regard to this matter, there are evidently *two classes* of verbs; namely, those whose present passive expresses precisely the same thing, passively, as the active voice does actively, and those in which it does not.

I. To the *first* of these classes belong—

1. All those verbs which, in the regular present passive, imply a *continuance of the act*; such as, *to love, to hate, to regard, to esteem, to envy, to please*, etc. Thus, "James loves me," and "I am loved by James," express precisely the same idea, and consequently *continuance* is implied as much in the passive form as in the active. Hence, "*is loved*," is a true present passive, both in form and meaning. In verbs of this class the progressive form in the active voice is seldom used, because it would express the same thing generally as the common form; thus, "James loves me," and "James is loving me," express the same thing.

2. To this class belong all verbs when used to express *general truths*, or what is *usual or customary* from time to time: Thus, "Vinegar *dissolves* pearls;" "Vice *produces* misery;" "The cobbler *mends* shoes;" "Masons *build* houses," etc. These verbs, used in *this way*, express precisely the same thing in the regular passive form as they do in the active. Thus, "Pearls *are dissolved* by vinegar;" "Misery *is produced* by vice;" "Shoes *are*

mended by the cobbler;" "*Houses are built by masons,*" etc. In verbs used in this way, the progressive form is not employed. The use of it would change the meaning from a general expression to a particular act. Thus, "*Vice is producing misery,*" would immediately direct the mind, not to a *general truth*, but to a *particular case*. But, again, when these verbs express a particular act, and not a general truth, the active and the passive present express *different* ideas; thus, "*James builds a house,*" represents an act in progress; but when we say, "*A house is built by James,*" the act is represented as completed.

3. To this class belong all verbs which, by the figure called *vision* (552-5), are used in the present tense to express what is past. Thus, "*Cæsar leaves Gaul,*" *crosses* the Rubicon, *enters* Italy." Passively, "*Gaul is left* by Cæsar, the Rubicon *is crossed*, Italy *is entered*. In all these, used in this figurative way, the present passive expresses the same thing as the present, active.

II. The *second* class of verbs consists of those (perhaps the greater number) whose present passive implies that the act expressed by the active voice has ceased, and the effect or result only remains as a finished act, and as such is predicated of the subject. Thus, "*The house is built.*" Here it is implied that the act of *building* is completed, and has ceased; and the *result*, expressed by *built*, is predicated of the house. In all verbs of this kind, the past participle, after the verb *to be*, has reference to the *state* resulting from the act as predicated of, or qualifying the subject of the verb, and not to the act itself. Strictly speaking, then, the past participle with the verb *to be* is not the present tense in the passive voice of verbs thus used; that is, this form does not express passively the *doing* of the act. These verbs either have no present passive, or it is made by annexing the participle in *ing*, in its passive sense, to the verb *to be*;" as, "*The house is building.*"

It is supposed by some that "*is built*," although in the form of the present passive, really is a present-perfect; because it represents the act as completed, and because the perfect-definite, in Latin, is often translated by this form into English. Due consideration, however, I think will show that it differs quite as much from the *present-perfect* as it does from the *present*. To be satisfied of this, compare the following expressions: "*This garment is torn,*" merely asserts the present *state* of the garment, with no reference to the *act* but what is implied; but when we say, "*This garment has been torn,*" the reference is chiefly to the *act* as having been done, with no reference to the *state* of the garment but what is implied. The one asserts that the garment remains torn, the other does not—it may have been mended; the latter is the regular passive of the present-perfect active, the former is not. This will perhaps be more clearly perceived by means of another example: "*This house has been painted,* but

the paint is worn off." This is good English; but if we should say, "This house is painted, but the paint is worn off," we would assert a contradiction.

There is properly no passive form, in English, corresponding to the progressive form in the active voice, except where it is made by the participle in *ing*, in a passive sense; thus, "The house is building;" "The garments are making;" "Wheat is selling," etc. Though such expressions have been used in all time past by the best writers, an attempt has been made by some grammarians of late, to banish them from the language, and to justify and defend a clumsy solecism, which has been introduced within the last forty years, chiefly through the newspaper press, but which has gained such currency, and is becoming so familiar to the ear, that it seems likely to prevail, with all its uncouthness and deformity. I refer to such expressions as "The house is being built;" "The letter is being written;" "The mine is being worked;" "The news is being telegraphed," etc. etc.

Respecting this mode of expression, it may be noticed—

1. That it had no existence in the language till within the last forty years. This, indeed, would not make it wrong, were it otherwise unexceptionable; but it shows that it is not, as is pretended, a necessary form; and in some measure accounts for the insolence and effrontery with which, like all upstarts, it seeks to override and bear down that which is venerable for its antiquity, and commended by its propriety.

2. This form of expression, when analyzed, is found not to express what it is intended to express, and would be used only by such as are either ignorant of its import, or are careless and loose in their use of language. To make this manifest, let it be considered, first, that there is no progressive form of the verb *to be*, and no need of it; hence, there is no such expression in English as *is being*. Of course, the expression "*is being built*," for example, is not a compound of *is being* and *built*, but of *is* and *being built*; that is, of the verb *to be* and the present participle passive. Now, let it be observed that the only verbs in which the present participle passive expresses a continued action, are those mentioned above as the first class, in which the regular passive form expresses a continuance of the action; as, *is loved*, *is desired*, etc., and in which of course the form in question (*is being built*) is not required. Nobody would think of saying, "He is being loved;" "This result is being desired."

In all other verbs, then, the present participle passive, like the present tense in the second class of verbs mentioned above, expresses, not a continued action, or the continued receiving of an action, but that the action has ceased, and the result only exists in a finished state. Thus, "Our arrangements *being made*, we departed;" "The house *being finished*, was immediately occupied;" "Our work *being finished*, we may rest," etc. In all such expressions, the present participle passive represents the ac-

tion as now *finished*, and existing only in its *results* (191). This finished act, then, can not be made *unfinished* and *progressive*, by being asserted of a subject, which is all the verb *to be*, as a copula, can express. Hence, it is manifest that *is being built*, if it mean any thing, can mean nothing more than *is built*, which is not the idea intended to be expressed.

3. For the same reason that *is being built*, etc. is contended for as a proper expression, we should contend also for, "Has been being built;" "Had been being built;" "Shall have been being built;" "Might have been being built;" "To be being built;" "To have been being built;" "Being being built;" "Having been being built." When all these shall have been introduced, our language will be rich indeed.

4. The use of this form is justified only by condemning an established usage of the language, namely, the passive sense in some verbs of the participle in *ing* (190). In reference to this, it is flippantly asked. "What does the house build?" "What does the letter write? etc." taking for granted, without attempting to prove, that the participle in *ing* can not have a passive sense in any verb. The following are a few examples from writers of the best reputation, which this novelty would condemn: "While the ceremony was performing."—*Tom Brown*. "The court was then holding."—*Sir G. M'Kenzie*. "And still be doing, neverdone." *Butler*. "The books are selling."—*Allen's Gram*. "The work of the temple was carrying on."—*Dr. Owen*. "To know nothing of what is transacting in the region above us."—*Dr. Blair*. "The spot where this new and strange tragedy was acting."—*E. Everett*. "The fortress was building."—*Irving*. "An attempt is making in the English parliament."—*D. Webster*. "The church now erecting in the city of New York."—*N. A. Review*. "This movement was making."—*Cooper*. "These things were transacting in England."—*Bancroft*.

5. This new doctrine is in opposition to the almost unanimous judgment of the most distinguished grammarians and critics, who have considered the subject, and expressed their views concerning it. The following are a specimen: "Expressions of this kind are condemned by some critics; but the usage is unquestionably of far better authority, and (according to my apprehension) in far better taste, than the more complex phraseology which some late writers adopt in its stead; as, 'The books are now being sold.'" *Goold Brown*. De War observes: "The participle in *ing* is also passive in many instances; as, 'The house is building;' 'I heard of a plan forming,' etc."—Quoted in *Frazee's Grammar*, page 49. "It would be an absurdity, indeed, to give up the only way we have of denoting the incomplete state of action by a passive form" (viz. by the participle in *ing* in the passive sense).—*Arnold's English Grammar*, p. 46. "The present participle is often used passively; as, 'The ship is building.' The form of expression, *is being built*, *is being committed*, etc., is almost universally con-

demned by grammarians, but it is sometimes met with in respectable writers; it occurs most frequently in newspaper paragraphs and in hasty compositions. See Worcester's *Universal and Critical Dictionary*.—*Weld's Grammar*, p. 118 and 180. "When we say, 'The house is building,' the advocates of the new theory ask, 'Building what?' We might ask, in turn, when you say, 'The field ploughs well,' 'Ploughs what?' 'Wheat sells well,' 'Sells what?' If usage allows us to say, 'Wheat sells at a dollar', in a sense which is not active; why may it not also allow us to say wheat is selling at a dollar, in a sense that is not active?"—*Hart's Gram.*, p. 76. "The prevailing practice of the best authors is in favor of the simple form; as, 'The house is building.'"—*Well's School Gram.*, p. 148. "Several other expressions of this sort now and then occur, such as the new-fangled and most uncouth solecism '*is being done*,' for the good old English idiom '*is doing*'—an absurd periphrasis driving out a pointed and pithy turn of the English language."—*N. A. Review*, quoted by *Mr. Wells*, p. 148.

This usage some suppose has its origin in the use of the verbal noun after *in*, to express the same idea; thus, "Forty and six years was this temple *in building*;" "And the house, when it was *in building*, was built of stone made ready; so that there was neither hammer nor axe heard in the house, while it was *in building*." In the absence of emphasis, the *in* being indistinctly uttered, came to be spoken, and consequently to be written, *a*; as, "While the ark was *a preparing*" (1 Pet. iii. 20), and finally to be omitted altogether. Similar changes of prepositions we have in the expressions, *a going*, *a running*, *a hunting*, *a fishing*, etc. Others, again, suppose that this ought to be regarded as an original idiom of the language, similar to the passive use of the infinitive active in such expressions as, "You are *to blame*;" "A house *to let*;" "Knives *to grind*," etc. But whether either of these is the true account of this matter or not, the fact is certain. It is therefore the duty of the grammarian to note the fact, though he may be unable to account for it.

XX. TWO FIRST, THREE LAST, &c.

The expressions, *two first*, *three last*, and the like, have been opposed and ridiculed by some, on the ground, as they allege, that there can be only *one* first, and *one* last. The objectors evidently have not well considered their position; for—

1. The terms *first* and *last* do not necessarily mean only *one*. *First*, according to Webster, means, "preceding all others." The *two first*, then, means the two preceding all others, and the *three last* means the three succeeding all others; expressions in which there is surely nothing either ridiculous or absurd.

2. If we say, "The first *days* of summer;" "The first *years* of our life;" "The last *days* of Pompeii," which nobody doubts, then, it is not true that there can be only *one first* and *one last*.

and so the ground of the objection fails. If we can say, "The *last days* of summer," why not the *two last*, or the *three last*?

3. The expression objected to is used by the best authorities in the language, and has been in use hundreds of years; and therefore, on the well-known maxim, "*Usage is the law of language*," even if it were absurd, it can not be rejected. The following are examples, most of them mentioned by Mr. Wells: "The four first acts."—*Bp. Berkeley*. "The three first monarchies."—*Warburton*. "The two first persons."—*Latham's Eng. Gram.* "My two last letters."—*Addison*. "The two-first lines."—*Blair*. "The three first generations."—*E. Everett*. "The two first years."—*Bancroft*. "The two first days."—*Irving*. "The two first cantos."—*A. H. Everett*. "The four first centuries."—*Prescott*. "The two last productions."—*N. A. Review*. "The four first are—poetical."—*Cheever*. "The three first of his longer poems."—*Southey*. "The two last schools."—*Johnson*. "The six first French kings."—*Macaulay*.

4. This expression is, in some cases, evidently better than the other. It is probably always so, when the number characterized as *first* or *last* constitutes a majority of the whole. When we say, "the first four," there is evidently a reference to a second four, or a last four. But if the first four constitute a majority of the whole, there remains no second four to justify the reference. Thus, when we say, "The first four acts of a play were well performed," there remains only *one* to which any other reference can be made. On the other hand, when a whole is divided into equal portions, each containing a certain number, as the recurrence of the census every five years—of the Olympic games every four—of the sabbath every seven days—of four lines in each stanza of a poem, and the like—then the expression, *first four*, *second four*, *last four*, etc., is *preferable*, because it implies a reference to other portions of equal extent. Also, even when there is no such reference, it is often properly used, especially when the number is *large*; as, "The first hundred;" "The last thousand," etc.

5. Several distinguished scholars and grammarians have examined this point, and expressed their views respecting it as follows: "It has been doubted whether the *cardinal* should *precede* or *follow* the ordinal numeral." Atterbury says in one of his letters to Pope: "Not but that the four first lines are good." "We conceive the expression to be quite correct, though the other form be often employed to denote the same conception."—*Crombie's English Syntax*, p. 240. "Some grammarians object to the use of the numerals *two*, *four*, etc., before the adjectives *first* and *last*. There seems, however, to be no good reason for the objection, and the expressions *two first*, *two last*, etc., are fully sanctioned by good usage."—*Wells's Grammar*, p. 137. The following is a note on the same page: "It has been fashionable of late to write the *first three*, and so on, instead of the *three*

first. People write in this way to avoid the seeming absurdity of implying that more than *one* thing can be *first*; but it is at least equally as absurd to talk about the *first four*, when, as often happens, there is no second four."—*Arnold*. "Surely if there can be only *one* last, *one* first, there can be only 'a last one,' 'a first one.' I need only observe, that usage is decidedly in favor of the former phraseology."—*Grant*.

"The only argument against the use of *two first*, and in favor of substituting *first two*, so far as I can recollect, is this: In the nature of things, there can be only *one* first and *one* last in any series of things. But is it true that there can never be more than *one* first, and *one* last? If it be so, then the adjectives *first* and *last* must always be of the *singular* number, and can never agree with nouns in the *plural*. 'We are told that the *first years* of a lawyer's practice are seldom very lucrative.' 'The poet tells us that his *first essays* were severely handled by the critics, but his *last efforts* have been well received.' Examples like these might be produced, without number; they occur everywhere, in all our standard writers. * * * When a numeral adjective, and a qualifying epithet, both refer to the same noun, the *general rule* of the English language is to place the numeral *first*, then the qualifying epithet, and then the noun. Thus we say, 'The two wise men,' 'The two tall men;' and not 'The *wise two* men,' 'The *tall two* men.' And the same rule holds in superlatives. We say, 'The two wisest men,' 'The two tallest men;' and not 'The *wisest two* men,' 'The *tallest two* men.' Now, if this be admitted to be the general rule of the English language, then it follows that *generally* we should say, 'The *two first*,' 'The *two last*,' etc., rather than 'The *first two*,' 'The *last two*,' etc. This, I say, should *generally* be the order of the words. Yet 'here are some cases in which it seems preferable to say. 'The *first two*,' 'The *last two*,' etc."—*Dr. Murdoch*.

XXI. FIRST AND SECOND, &c.

Two or more adjectives connected, without an article intervening, belong to the same noun; as "A red and white rose;" that is, *one* rose partly red and partly white. Hence, care should be taken to see that the qualities expressed by adjectives so used be consistent, or such as may be found in one object. Thus, it would be improper to say, "An old and young man;" "A round and square hole;" "A hot and cold spring;" because a man can not be *old* and *young* at the same time; nor a hole *round* and *square*; nor a spring *hot* and *cold*. Hence—

When two or more adjectives express qualities that belong to different objects of the same name, and that name expressed only with the last, the article should be placed before each adjective; thus, "A red and a white rose" means *two* roses; one red, and one white. In this case, it makes no difference whether the qualities expressed by the adjectives be consistent or not, since

they belong to different individuals. Thus, we can say, "A young and an old man;" "A round and a square hole;" "a hot and a cold spring;" that is, one man young, and another old, etc. It is therefore manifest that we can not properly say, "The first and second page;" "The fifth and sixth verse;" "The Old and New Testament;" because no page can be at once *first* and *second*—no verse *fifth* and *sixth*, and no Testament *Old* and *New*. It is equally improper in principle to say, "The first and second pages;" "The fifth and sixth verses," because two adjectives can not be joined with a word *jointly* which can not be joined with it *separately*. We can not say, "the *first* pages," nor "the *second* pages," when we mean but *one first* and *one second*. Besides, when the ellipsis is supplied, it stands "the *first* page and the *second* page;" and the omission of the first noun can not, on any correct principle, affect the number of the *second*. In many cases, too, the use of the plural, if it would relieve from the absurdity of uniting inconsistent qualities in an object, will as certainly lead to ambiguity. For if, to avoid the absurdity of saying "the old and young man," we say "the old and young men," the latter expression may mean fifty, or a hundred, or any number of men, instead of two; one young and one old. Notwithstanding, however, usage has prevailed over principle in this as well as in other cases; and it has become quite common to say, "The first and second verses;" "The Old and New Testaments;" "The hot and cold springs;" "The indicative and subjunctive moods," etc. When no ambiguity exists in the use of such expressions, they must be tolerated. The correct expression, however, in all cases in which *one* is intended, is made by *repeating the article with the adjective, and retaining the noun in the singular*; thus, "The first and the second verse;" "The Old and the New Testament;" "The hot and the cold spring," etc.; or, "The first verse and the second," etc.

QUESTIONS.

GRAMMAR AND ORTHOGRAPHY. §§ 1, 2.

What is Grammar? What is its object as a science?—as an art? What is English Grammar? Into what parts is it divided? Of what does Orthography treat?—Etymology?—Syntax?—Prosody? Of what does Orthography treat besides letters? What is a letter? How many letters are in the English Alphabet? How are they divided? What is a vowel? What letters are vowels? What is a consonant? What letters are consonants? When are *w* and *y* vowels?—when consonants? What is a diphthong?—a proper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?—a triphthong?

What is a syllable? How do we know how many syllables a word contains? What is a monosyllable?—a dissyllable?—a trisyllable?—a polysyllable? What is *syllabication*? What is the general rule for dividing words into syllables? When should a hyphen be placed between two words? How should words be divided at the end of a line?

§ 2. What is spelling? How is proficiency in spelling to be acquired? What is the first general rule?—the second?—the third?—the fourth?—the fifth?—the sixth?—the seventh?—the eighth?

ETYMOLOGY AND PARTS OF SPEECH. §§ 3, 4.

Of what does Etymology treat? What are words? How are words divided in respect of their *formation*?—of their form?—of signification and use? What is a primitive word?—a derivative?—a simple?—a compound? What is a declinable word?—an indeclinable? How many parts of speech are there in English? Which are declinable?—indeclinable? What is a *substantive*? How is the term substantive used in this Grammar? What is Parsing? How is a word parsed etymologically?—syntactically?

NOUN. §§ 5–11.

§ 5. What is a noun? Into what two kinds are nouns divided? What is a proper noun?—a common noun? What is the use of proper nouns?—of common nouns? How do proper nouns

become common? How do common nouns become proper? What is the usual subdivision of common nouns? What is a collective noun?—an abstract noun?—a verbal noun? What are the accidents of the noun?

§ 6. **PERSON.**—What is person? How many persons are there? When is a noun in the first person?—in the second?—in the third?

§ 7. **GENDER.** What is gender? How many genders are there? What nouns are masculine?—feminine?—neuter? How many ways of distinguishing the sex are there? What is the first? (Give examples)—the second? (Give examples)—the third? (Give examples). What is meant by common gender? When are neuter nouns to be regarded as masculine or feminine? When the sex of an animal is not known to us, what gender do we assign to it? How do we consider those of inferior size? When does the masculine term include the female as well as the male?

§§ 8, 9, 10. **NUMBER.** What is number? What numbers have nouns? What does the singular denote?—the plural? How do nouns commonly form the plural? What is the first special rule? its exceptions? How do nouns that end in *y* after a consonant, form the plural?—in *y* after a vowel?—in *f* or *fe*? What are the exceptions? What nouns are irregular in the plural? What nouns have both a regular and irregular form? How do some compounds form the plural?—words from foreign languages? (Give examples). Have proper names commonly a plural? Why? When have they a plural? have usually the singular only?—the plural only?—the same form in both?—are plural in form, but singular in construction?—singular or plural in construction?

§ 11. **CASE.** What is case? What cases have nouns? How is the nominative used?—the possessive?—the objective? Which cases are alike? How is the possessive formed in the singular?—in the plural?—in the plural not ending in *s*? For what is the apostrophe and *s* an abbreviation? When is the *s* omitted after an apostrophe in the singular. What is equivalent to the possessive case? When should this expression be used instead of the possessive? How is a noun parsed etymologically?

THE ARTICLE. § 12.

What is an article? What is its use? What are the articles? What is *a* or *an* called?—why? What is *the* called?—why?

How is a noun without an article taken? Before what letters is *a* used?—*an*? When is *a* used before a vowel? When is *an* used before *h*? How is an article parsed etymologically.

THE ADJECTIVE. §§ 13, 14.

§ 13. What is an adjective? What is meant by *qualifying* a noun? When may an adjective qualify a pronoun? What else may it qualify in this position? When do nouns become adjectives? When are adjectives used as nouns? What are adjectives called that express number? How many classes of numerals are there? What are the cardinal numerals? What do they express? What are the ordinal numerals? What do they express? How are compound numerals made ordinal?

§ 14. COMPARISON. What degrees of comparison have adjectives? What does the *positive* express?—the *comparative*?—the *superlative*? How are adjectives of *one* syllable compared—of *two* or more? How are dissyllables in *le* after a mute compared?—dissyllables in *y*? What classes of adjectives do not admit of comparison? (Give examples in each). Of what degree are *superior*, *inferior*, and the like? Why are they not comparatives? What is meant by the superlative of *eminence*? How is the signification of the positive sometimes diminished? What adjectives are compared irregularly? (Compare them). How is *much* applied?—*many*?—*elder* and *eldest*?—*older* and *oldest*?

PRONOUNS. §§ 15–18.

§ 15. What is a PRONOUN? Into what classes are pronouns divided? What are the personal pronouns? (Decline them). What pronouns are of the first person? Why?—of the second? Why?—of the third? Why? What are the compound personal pronouns? In what cases are they used? For what purpose are they used in the nominative?—in the objective? How is *we* used in proclamations, etc.? In what style is *thou* used? What is used for *thou* in the common style? How is *it* used before the verb *to be*? How are personal pronouns parsed?

§ 16. RELATIVE. What is a relative pronoun? (Name them). Which are declinable? Which are indeclinable? (Decline *who*—*which*). To what is *who* applied?—*which*? How is *which* applied in the Bible? How is *that* used as a relative? To what is it applied? To what is the relative *what* applied? When is it used? To what is it equivalent? What relatives are sometimes

used as adjectives? What are the compound relatives? To what are they equivalent? What are *who*, *which* and *what* in responsive sentences? How is the gender and number of the relative determined? How are relatives parsed?

§ 17. INTERROGATIVES. What pronouns are employed in asking questions? What are they then called? What interrogative is applied to persons? What, to things? How are the interrogatives *who*, *which*, and *what* distinguished when applied to persons? What does *whether* mean? How is it now used?

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS. § 18.

What are adjective pronouns? Into what classes are they divided?

POSSESSIVES. What is a *possessive* adjective pronoun? (Name them). To what is the possessive pronoun equivalent in meaning? How does it differ in use from the possessive case? What are *his* and *her* when followed by a substantive?—when not followed by a substantive? When are *mine* and *thine* used as possessives?

DISTRIBUTIVES. What is a *distributive* adjective pronoun? (Name them). What does *each* denote?—*every*?—*either*?—*neither*?

DEMONSTRATIVES. What is a *demonstrative* pronoun? (Name them). What other words may be called demonstratives? When is *that* a relative?—when a *demonstrative*?—when a *conjunction*?

INDEFINITES. What are *indefinite* pronouns? (Name the indefinite pronouns). How is *none* used? How is an adjective pronoun parsed?

VERBS. §§ 19–32.

§ 19. What is a verb? What is its use in simple propositions? What is the subject of a verb? Into what two classes are verbs divided? What is a transitive verb? What forms has it? What is an intransitive verb? What does the word *transitive* mean as applied to verbs?—*intransitive*? What is the usual form of intransitive verbs? In how many ways are intransitive verbs rendered transitive? What are they? How are transitive verbs distinguished from intransitive? What is the *first* method?—the *second*?—the *third*? How is a transitive verb used when it is without an object?

How are verbs divided in respect of *form*? What is a regular

verb?—an irregular?—a defective verb? To which of these classes do auxiliaries belong?—impersonal verbs?

§ 20. AUXILIARY VERBS. What is an auxiliary verb? In what tenses are they used? (Name them in the present tense—in the past.) What verbs are used both as auxiliaries and principal verbs? What does *shall* imply?—*will*?—*may*?—*can*? In what tense are *will* and *shall* auxiliaries?—*may* or *can*? How are *will* and *shall* distinguished in expressing resolution or purpose?—in expressing simple futurity?—in interrogations? How are verbs inflected?

§ 21. VOICE. What is voice? In English how many voices are there? (Name them). What kind of verbs have two voices? How does the *active* voice represent the subject?—the *passive*? Are any verbs used both in a transitive and an intransitive sense? (Give an example).

§ 22. MOODS. What is *mood*? How many moods have verbs? (Name them). How is a verb used in the indicative mood?—in the potential?—in the subjunctive?—in the imperative?—in the infinitive? How does the declaration made by the indicative mood differ from that made by the potential? How does the subjunctive differ in form from the indicative? Why is the subjunctive mood so called? Is the indicative ever used subjunctively?—is the potential? What persons has the imperative mood? What is the true character of the infinitive?

§§ 23, 24. TENSES. What are *tenses*? How is time naturally divided? In each of these, how may an action, etc. be represented? How many tenses are there in English? (Name them). What does the present tense express?—the present-perfect?—the past?—the past-perfect?—the future?—the future perfect? What is a simple tense?—a compound? Which tenses are simple?—which compound? What different things is the present tense in the simple form, used to express?—the present-perfect? To what tense in Latin does the present-perfect in English correspond? What tenses has the indicative mood?—the potential?—the subjunctive?—the imperative?—the infinitive?—the participle?

§ 25. PARTICIPLES. What is a participle? Why so called? How many participles have verbs in the active voice? (Name them)—in the passive? (Name them). How does the present participle active always end? Has it ever a passive sense?

(Give an example). Does the past participle active differ in form from the past participle passive? Is the perfect participle simple or compound? When do participles become adjectives? What participles may become adjectives in this way? (Give examples). What participles are used as verbal nouns? (Give an example of each). When a participle is so used, what cases does it have

§ 26. NUMBER AND PERSON. How many numbers have verbs? In each of these, how many persons are there? Of what does the first person assert?—the second?—the third?

§ 27. CONJUGATION. What is the conjugation of a verb? What two forms has the verb in the active voice? What does the *common* form express?—the *progressive*? How is a verb rendered emphatic in the present?—in the past?—in the compound tenses? What are called the principal parts of a verb? What is conjugating a verb? (Conjugate the verb *to love* in the active voice;—inflect it through all its parts). How is a verb parsed?

§ 28. FORMS. How is a verb made to deny? How, in the infinitive and participles? How is a verb made to ask a question? How are interrogative sentences made negative.

§ 29, 30, 31. To BE, etc. Conjugate the irregular verb *to be*. (Inflect it). How is the progressive form of the verb made? How is the passive voice formed? Conjugate *to love* in the passive voice. (Inflect it).

§ 32. IRREGULAR AND DEFECTIVE VERBS. What is an irregular verb? Conjugate *abide*, etc. (see the list). What is a defective verb? What are the defective verbs? What is an impersonal verb? (Give examples). Properly speaking, what is the pronoun *it* before the impersonal verb?

ADVERBS. §§ 33, 34.

What is an adverb? Into what classes have adverbs been divided? What is the chief use of adverbs? What kind of adverbs admit of comparison? What adverbs are compared irregularly? (Give examples of words made into adverbs, by prefixing *a*). What are *as* and *so* in comparisons? What is an adverbial phrase? How is *there* used at the beginning of a sentence? How is an adverb parsed?

PREPOSITIONS. § 35.

What is a preposition ? Of the related words, what is that *before* the preposition called ?—that *after* it ? Why are words of this class called *prepositions* ? (Give a list of prepositions). What case does a preposition require after it ? What does a preposition become when it has no object ? Are prepositions ever understood ? (Give an example). What are inseparable prepositions ? (Name them). How are prepositions parsed ?

INTERJECTIONS. § 36.

What is an interjection ? Have interjections any grammatical connection with other words in a sentence ? What is the difference between *O* and *Oh* ? How are interjections parsed ?

CONJUNCTIONS. § 37.

What is a conjunction ? Into what classes are conjunctions divided ? What is the use of *copulative* conjunctions ?—of *disjunctive* ? What are the principal copulatives—disjunctives ? What does *and* denote ? What do *or* and *nor* denote ? How are conjunctions parsed ?

PARSING. §§ 38, 39.

What is parsing ? How is one part of speech to be distinguished from another ? How do we know when a word is a *noun* ?—an *adjective* ?—a *pronoun* ?—a *verb* ?—an *adverb* ?—a *preposition* ?—an *interjection* ?—a *conjunction* ? What are the general principles to be kept in view in parsing ? Give specimens of parsing.

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